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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain 24 papers in English and 3 papers in French: "Adult Education and the Social Sciences" (Draper); "Readability as Applied to an ABE (Adult Basic Education) Assessment Instrument" (Taylor, Wahlstrom); "Quality of Worklife: Adult Education Administrators Speak Out" (McKee, Murphy); "The Problem of Journal Searching: The Case of Retrieving Adult Education Evaluation Articles" (Dobson); "Mutual Enlightenment in Edwardian Vancouver" (Hunt); "Psychosocial Representations and Adult Education" (Chene); "A Participatory Research Project against Sexism" (Chervin); "Change and Continuing Professional Education" (Rogers); "The Leadership Function of Government" (Selman); "Manifestations de meta-apprentissage en situation d'autodidaxie" (Tremblay, Danis); "Notes towards a Definition of Community in Adult Education" (Thomas); "The Origin and Major Influences of Agricultural Extension in North America" (Roy-Poirier); "Le recit de formation" (Chene); "Report on CASAE/ACEEA (Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education/L'Association Canadienne pour l'etude de l'education des adultes) History Sub-Committee Meeting"; "Opening Remarks, Symposium on Adult Education and Peace" (Thomas); "Education for Peace, and Adult Education" (Roberts); "Education as a Soporific Activity" (McQueen); "Quality Assurance in Adult and Continuing Education" (Waldron, Carley); "Adults' Prior Learning: An Overview of Various Methods of Recognition" (Sansregret); "Adult Education in Saskatchewan during the Three Phases of Settlement in the Territorial Period 1870-1905" (Hein); "A New Intensive Continuing Professional Education Experience" (Murphy); "St. Francis Xavier Department of Adult Education: Challenge and Promise" (Dobson, Gillen); abstract of "Toryism and Adult Education: A Canadian Myth Exposed" (Boshier); "Education in Canadian Federal Prisons: An Historical Analysis" (Owens); "Student Perceptions of Three Models of Self-Directed Learning in a Graduate Program of Adult Education" (Herman); "Les modes d'apprentissage et les raisons du choix de ces modes" (Blais); and "Towards Alternate Models in Continuing Professional Education Evaluation Research" (Baskett). Most of the papers contain bibliographies. (KC)

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Preface

This is a publication of papers presented at the third annual conference of the CASAE/ACEEA. This conference was held in conjunction with the Learned Societies Conference at the University of Guelph, June 8-10, 1984. A feature of this conference was a joint plenary session of the Association and the Canadian Peace Research and Educational Association (CPREA). The convenor of this session was Alan Thomas and a copy of the presentations by Haydon Roberts and Graeme McQueen are included in this publication. Unfortunately, a copy of the presentation made in this session by Rashmi Puri (Punjab University, India), "Gandhian views on peace through education", is not available. All papers have been reproduced as supplied by the presenters. Also included are papers that had been submitted but which were not presented at the Conference.

Thanks are due to the Department of the Secretary of State, Government of Canada, who gave financial assistance towards the provision of interpretation and translation services; The Social Science Federation of Canada who provided funds for the joint session between CASAE/ACEEA and CPREA; and to the Canadian Mental Health Association, which permitted Gregory Conchelos time to work on the Conference preparations. Thanks are especially due to Gregory Conchelos for the work he did in organizing this Conference and to James Draper, President of the Association, for his guidance and support.

Peter Bartram
Seneca College of Applied Arts and Technology

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE SUTDY OF ADULT EDUCATION

L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE POUR L'ETUDE DE L'EDUCATION DES ADULTES

Board of Directors 1983/84

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Preface		i
Board of Directors CASAE/ACEEA 1983/84		ii
1984 Conference Programme		v
Adult Education and the Social Sciences	- James Draper	1
Readability as Applied to an ABE Assessment Instrument	- Maurice Taylor and Merl Wahlstrom	15
Quality of Worklife: Adult Education Administrators Speak-Out	- Marie McKee and Peter Murphy	38
The Problem of Journal Searching: The Case of Retrieving Adult Education Evaluation Articles	- John Dobson	55
Mutual Enlightenment in Edwardian Vancouver	- Ian Hunt	79
Psychosocial Representations and Adult Education	- Adèle Chené	99
A Participatory Research Project Against Sexism	- Michael Chervin	106
Change and Continuing Professional Education	- Lorelei Rogers	112
The Leadership Function of Government	- Gordon Selman	139
Manifestations de Méta-Apprentissage an Situation D'Autodidaxie	- Nicole Tremblay and Claudia Denis	151
Notes Towards a Definition of Community in Adult Education	- Alan Thomas	167
The Origin and Major Influences of Agricultural Extension in North America	- Joanne Roy-Poirier	172
Le récit de formation	- Adèle Chené	189
Report on CASAE/ACEEA History Sub-Committee Meeting	-	198
Opening Remarks, Symposium on Adult Education and Peace	- Alan Thomas	201
Education for Peace, and Adult Education	- Hayden Roberts	203
Education as a Soporific Activity	- Graeme McQueen	211

			Page
Quality Assurance in Adult Education and Continuing Education	-	Mark Waldron and Robert Carley	226
Adults' Prior Learning: An Overview of Various Methods of Recognition	-	Marthe Sansregret	245
Adult Education in Saskatchewan During the Three Phases of Settlement in the Territional Period 1870-1905	-	Stewart Mein	258
A New Intensive Continuing Professional Education Experience	-	Peter Murphy	278
St. Francis Xavier Department of Adult Education:- Challenge and Promise	-	John Dobson and Marie Gillen	289
Toryism and Adult Education: A Canadian Myth Exposed (Abstract)	-	Roger Boshier	297
Education in Canadian Federal Prisons: An Historical Analysis	-	Margaret Owens	298
Student Perceptions of Three Models of Self-Directed Learning in a Graduate Program of Adult Education	-	Reg Herman	324
Les Modes D'Apprentissage et Les Raisons du Choix de Ces Modes	-	Madeleine Blais	340
Towards Alternate Models in Continuing Professional Education Evaluation Research	-	Morris Baskett	361

CASAE/ACEEA

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION
L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE POUR L'ETUDE DE L'EDUCATION DES ADULTES

THIRD ANNUAL CONFERENCE

PROGRAMME

8, 9 and 10 June 1984
University of Guelph
Guelph, Ontario

In conjunction with the meeting of the Learned Societies

NOTE: All sessions will be held at the Cutten Club, except the joint CASAE/ACEEA and CPREA plenary session on Sunday at 10:00 a.m.

All concurrent sessions are one and one half hours long.

CASAE/ACEEA Conference Committee Chairperson:

Dr. Greg Conchelos

Presentation Review Committee Chairperson:

Prof. Betty Macleod

Conference Program Coordinator:

Prof. Peter Bartram

Learned Societies Liaison/Site Coordinator:

Prof. Mark Waldron

Registration/Video Coordination:

Ms. Elizabeth Cockburn

Special thanks to the CASAE/ACEEA Executive for their guidance.

Thanks to Prof. Donald Blackburn for the provision of the Roby Kidd videotape.

ORGANIZATIONS FROM WHICH CONFERENCE PERSONNEL WERE DRAWN:

- Canadian Mental Health Association
- Community Services Division, George Brown College
- Department of Continuing Education, University of Guelph
- Department of English, University of Guelph
- Department of Adult Education, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
- Applied Arts Division, Seneca College

We would like to thank the following parties for their assistance in this Conference:

The Department of the Secretary of State, Government of Canada has granted financial assistance towards the provision of interpretation and translation services.

The Social Science Federation of Canada has provided funds for the joint session between CASAE/ACEEA and CPREA (Canadian Peace Research and Educational Association) on Peace Research.

PLEASE NOTE: A limited budget permitted simultaneous interpretation of only two of the eight concurrent sessions on Saturday. Priority was given to presenters who specifically asked for the service and on the basis of submission post-marks.

EVENTS

Simultaneous interpretation provided on Saturday only. Sessions with simultaneous interpretation are indicated with an asterisk (*).

Thursday June 7, 1984

5:00 p.m.-7:00 p.m.: Registration at the Cutten Club

Friday June 8, 1984

9 a.m.: Registration open all day

10:30 a.m.-1:30 p.m.: Meeting of Professors in Adult Education
Convenor: Prof. George Ambury
Room: Commonwealth B

Meeting of Adult Education Students
Convenor: Mr. Gabriele Ferrazzi
Room: Commonwealth A

1:30 p.m.: Opening Plenary Session
Prof. James Draper, President CASAE/ACEEA
Room: Commonwealth B

1:45 p.m.-3:15 p.m.: Plenary Session
The CASAE/ACEEA (Dr. Teresa MacNeil and Dr. Reginald Wickett) and the Social Science Federation of Canada (Dr. Christian Pouyez)
Convenor: Prof. James Draper
"Adult Education and the Social Sciences"
Room: Commonwealth B

3:15 p.m.: Coffee
Room: Commonwealth C

3:30 p.m.-5:00 p.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS I

- Applications of Readability Formulas in Adult Basic Education Tests
  Maurice Taylor and Merl Wahlstrom, Department of Adult Education, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
  Room: Commonwealth A

- Quality of Worklife: Adult Education Administrators Speak Out
  Paula Brook and Peter J. Murphy, Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education, University of British Colombia
  Room: Commonwealth B

- The Problem of Journal Searching: the Case of Retrieving Adult Education Evaluation Articles
  John Dobson, Department of Adult Education, St. Francis Xavier University
  Room: Commonwealth C

- Making Culture: Mutual Enlightenment in Edwardian Vancouver
  Ian Hunt, University of British Columbia
  Room: Board Room

5:00 p.m.-6:30 p.m.: Plenary Session
National Surveys on Adult Participation in Learning
Report to CASAE/ACEEA by the Secretary of State (Maria Barrados) and Statistics Canada (Susan D'Antoni)
Convenor: Prof. James Draper
Room: Commonwealth B

6:30 p.m.-7:30 p.m.: Dinner on your own

7:30 p.m.-9:00 p.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS II

- Theories of Aging and Adult Education
  Adèle Chené, University of Montreal
  Room: Commonwealth B

- La recherche participative : applications et perspectives (Participatory Research: Applications and Perspectives)
  Ido Alitou (Ministère de la Jeunesse, Mali), Michael Chervin (Centre de ressources de la troisième avenue), Margot Desilets (Centre d'éducation populaire, Commission des écoles catholiques du Québec), and Budd L. Hall (International Council for Adult Education)
  Room: Commonwealth C

- The Female Administrator of Continuing Education Programs in Vancouver, B.C.
  Paula Brook, University of British Columbia
  Room: Board Room

9:00 p.m.: Wine and cheese reception, hosted by University of Guelph Department of Continuing Education
Premiere Showing of video tape about Prof. Roby Kidd
Room: Commonwealth B

Saturday June 9, 1984

9:00 a.m.-10:30 a.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS III

- Popular Education in Latin America: A Current Illustration of Adult Education as a Social Movement
  Paz G. Buttedahl, Buttedahl Research and Development Associates, Vancouver
  Room: Commonwealth A

- A Professional Education Program for Teachers in the Community
  Lorelei M. Rogers, University of Calgary
  Room: Commonwealth C

- The Leadership Function of Government: The Case of Adult Education in British Columbia 1976-1983
  Gordon Selman, Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education, University of British Columbia
  Room: Board Room

- Manifestations métacognitives en situation d'autodidaxie* (Metacognitives Manifestations in the Self-Directed Learning Situation)
  Nicole Tremblay and Claudia Danis, Department of Androgogy, University of Montreal
  Room: Commonwealth B

10:30 a.m.: Coffee
Room: Commonwealth C

10:45 a.m.-12:15 p.m.: Annual General Assembly*
Room: Commonwealth B

Board of Directors' Luncheon Meeting at Cutten Club
For others, lunch on your own

1:30 p.m.-3:15 p.m.: Plenary Session
Building a National Intellectual Community in Adult Education*
Speakers: Dr. Paz G. Buttedahl and Dr. Alan Thomas
Others speakers to be announced
Convenor: Dr. Gordon Selman
Room: Commonwealth B

3:15 p.m.: Coffee
Room: Commonwealth C

* Simultaneous interpretation

3:30 p.m.-5:00 p.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS IV

- Community-Based Literacy Projects: Can Literacy Promote Social Change?
  Tanis Atkinson, East End Literacy; Brenda Duncombe, Downtown Church Workers; Jenny Horseman, Participatory Research Group; Marianne Williams, St. Christopher House (Toronto)
  Room: Commonwealth A

- Preliminary Report of an Ethnographic Study of Managerial Learning
  David Kelleher, Department of Applied Social Science, Concordia University
  Room: Board Room

- The Origins and Major Influences of Agricultural Extension Work in North America*
  Jeannine Roy-Poirier, Cornwall Campus, University of Ottawa
  Room: Commonwealth B

- Une expérience d'analyse du récit de formation
  Adèle Chené, University of Montreal
  Room: Commonwealth C

5:00 p.m.-6:30 p.m.: University of Guelph President's Reception
Place: President's House

6:30 p.m.-8:00 p.m.: Dinner meeting: History of Adult Education Group, with Dr. Gordon Selman
Place: Whipple Tree Restaurant

8:00 p.m. 'til?: Cash Bar at the Faculty Club

Sunday June 10, 1984

10:00 a.m.-12:30 p.m.: Joint Plenary Session CASAE/ACEEA and CPREA
Research in Adult Education and Peace Education
Convenor: Dr. Alan Thomas, CASAE/ACEEA

Speakers:
- Prof. Graeme McQueen, Department of Religious Studies, McMaster University: Education as a Soporific
- Prof. Hayden Roberts, Department of Continuing Education, University of Alberta: Topic to be announced

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* Simultaneous interpretation

International Guest Speaker:
- Prof. Rashmi Puri, Gandhian Studies, University of Punjab, India: Gandhian Views on Peace Through Education

NOTE: This session will take place in the Animal Sciences Building, Room 141

12:30 p.m.: Lunch on your own

1:30 p.m.-3:00 p.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS V

. Quality Assurance in Adult and Continuing Education
Robert Carley and Mark Waldron, Department of Continuing Education, University of Guelph
Room: Commonwealth A

. Adults' Prior Learning: An Overview of Various Methods of Recognition
Marthe Sansregret, John Abbott College, Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue, Quebec
Room: Commonwealth B

. Adult Education in Saskatchewan
Stewart G. Mein, Regina, Saskatchewan
Room: Commonwealth C

. A New Intensive Continuing Professional Education Experience
Paula Brook and Peter J. Murphy, Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education, University of British Columbia
Room: Board Room

3:00 p.m.: Coffee
Room: Commonwealth C

3:30 p.m.-5:00 p.m.: CONCURRENT SESSIONS VI

. St. Francis Xavier Department of Adult Education: Challenge and Promise
John Dobson and Marie Gillen, Department of Adult Education, St. Francis Xavier University
Room: Commonwealth A

. Toryism and Adult Education: A Canadian Myth Exposed
Roger Boshier, Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education, University of British Columbia
Room: Commonwealth B

- Education in Canadian Federal Prisons: An Historical Analysis
  Margaret Owens, Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education, University of British Columbia
  Room: Commonwealth C

- Research and Action: An ICAE Presentation
  Yusuf Kassam, Lynda Yanz and Muriel Mathon, International Council for Adult Education
  Room: Board Room

5:00 p.m.: Adjournment

The following papers will not be presented at the Conference but will be included in the Proceedings:

- Student Perceptions of Self-Directed Learning in a Graduate Program of Adult Education
  Reg Herman, Department of Adult Education, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

- The Migrants: Women in Cross-Cultural Transition
  Catherine Warren, Faculty of Continuing Education, University of Alberta

- Les modes d'apprentissage et les raisons du choix de ces modes (Learning Styles and Reasons for the Choice of these Styles)
  Madeleine Blais, Magog, Quebec

- Measurement and Utilization of Knowledge about Learning Styles
  Marie Gillen, St. Francis Xavier University

- Towards Alternate Models in Continuing Professional Education Impact Research
  H.K. Baskett, Faculty of Continuing Education, University of Calgary

- Distance Education Design, Development and Delivery as Influenced by Several Program Evaluations
  Margaret Haughey, University Extension, University of Victoria

ADULT EDUCATION AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

James A. Draper
Department of Adult Education
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

Introduction

The general tradition of adult education, as a field of study, has been to affiliate more closely with the social sciences than with the field of education. Much of the literature and theory upon which adult education is based comes from psychology, sociology, comparative studies, group dynamics, the communication sciences, agricultural extension, and of course, history and philosophy. To some extent the literature in adult education has been drawn from management studies, anthropology and education; and to a much lesser extent from political science, economics and policy studies.

In keeping with this tradition, the previous executive of CASAE/ACEEA, under the presidency of Dr. Gisele Painchaud, requested membership and was accepted into the Social Science Federation of Canada. Our participation in the Federation began in May, 1983 and I continue to represent CASAE/ACEEA on the Board of Directors of the Federation.

The purpose of this presentation is twofold. First, to further explore the relationship between adult education and the social sciences. For instance: to what extent has adult education become a social science? What is adult education giving or has the potential to contribute to the social sciences? In what ways are the above in evidence, e.g. through research? teaching? publishing? or professional interaction? To assist with this task, I have asked Dr. Teresa MacNeil, St. Francis Xavier University and Dr. Reg Wickett, University of Saskatchewan, to share some of their views on this topic.

The second part of this presentation is to have us become familiar with the purpose and activities of the Social Science Federation of Canada. To assist in doing this, I have asked Dr. Christian Pouyez, Executive Director of the Federation, to be with us. Here we will examine the benefits to CASAE/ACEEA as a member of the Federation and the reverse of this, how can our organization support the work of the Federation and the services it provides.

A. Adult Education and the Social Sciences

To begin the discussions, let us clarify what is meant by the term "social sciences". Following from this, I will then make a number of references to the literature coming from the Social Science Federation of Canada, in order to illustrate some of the goals, constraints, issues, and characteristics of the social sciences. Finally, I will draw some conclusions from these expressions and relate these to our field of adult education, as a way of reinforcing our association with the social sciences.

What are the social sciences? How does adult education integrate into descriptions and functions of these sciences? The Social Science Federation of Canada, in its statement "Objectives of Social Science Research: Its Perceived Relevance and Appropriate Expectations" defines the social sciences as follows:

> The social sciences are often identified by their obvious contributions and applications. The disciplines and their activities, however, are much broader in scope and goals as well as more intensive in method than any particular application may imply. The social sciences involve a careful systematic collection of information and way of watching the environment. Social scientist produce theories that explain, interpret and help understanding of social events that are incompletely or incorrectly comprehended. In their exploration of the functions of individuals, societies and economics, they seek to understand the mind and behavior of individuals, as well as the history, culture, and current functioning of society. Social scientists develop concepts such as "gross national product," the "unconscious" and "acculturation" to describe phenomena that already exist. Promulgation of these constructs, in turn, raise social awareness, encourage discussion, and lessen ignorance. (1982)

Brenda E.F. Beck (vice-president, external communications, SSFC) further points out that:

> Whereas the physical sciences study physical properties and processes, the social sciences study the social underpinning that are necessary to orchestrate that knowledge and put it to good use.

In the same SSFC report ("Objectives of Social Science Research:..."), the point is made that many returns have come from the social sciences in the form of ideas, alleviation of social problems, improved quality of life, increased strength in international relations, and contributions to technological and industrial development. The knowledge obtained from the social sciences may seem abstract or not always directed to particular current social problems or policy issues. But such knowledge is useful in providing a basis for the further acquisition of knowledge.

The SSFC's "Task force on the Advancement of Social Science Research in Canada in the 1980's" (1983) draws a number of conclusions, or makes a number of observations that are relevant to our discussion, for instance: research support programs cannot function or be established in isolation from one another; the research strengths of its constituency can be achieved only by sufficient support for research and its communication; the research capability within the social sciences must be strengthened; funding and other support of research in the social sciences should be longer term, with increased flexibility for investigators; the development of a strong social science community is imperative, with improved communication among scholars at all levels. Another document which attempts to shed light on the modes and patterns of research in the social sciences concludes that "research in our disciplines is a part-time and discontinuous activity generally undertaken with limited or no financial support ("Research Activity in the Social Sciences" by John Adair, SSFC.)

A number of other thoughts and statements about the social sciences can be referred to and para-phrased. The point is made frequently that to enunciate the objectives of research in the social sciences, its preceived relevance and appropriate expectations are often not appreciated. Funding outcomes in the social sciences often do not have the dramatic outcomes that research in the medical and natural sciences has. Furthermore, goal or mission oriented research makes use of and is there by greatly facilitated by knowledge obtained in 'discipline-oriented' work.

A forthcoming conference sponsored by the Science Council of Canada has chosen a number of topics for discussion, including the social knowledge requirements of society, impediments to the creation and use of research for social problem-solving, resources, requirements and potential for social science research in Canada, requirements for creating effective social knowledge and concepts, and towards year 2000: issues requiring social research.

At its 1984 annual meeting, the Social Science Federation of Canada chose as its three theme areas: communicating with non-research or 'intermediate' publics; funding in the social sciences; and, journals in the social sciences. Concern was also expressed about integrating the social sciences into public discussion. Reference was made to the ill-founded dichotomy between strategic and independent research, and the suggestion made that perhaps the latter term should be replaced by 'investigator-initiated research. Another document pointed out that one of the impediments to research productivity is teaching load within the universities. Another comment was that there must be a greater awareness of the impact and potential application of research findings. Finally, "... the principal problems in dealing with technological change arise in the area of the social sciences rather than in the natural and engineering sciences" ("The Social Challenge of Technological Development").

From the above selected expressions, there is no doubt that adult education and the social sciences in general share concerns and identities with each other. Both are committed to research; to the promotion and dissemination of research; and to the training of researchers. As a social science, adult education encourages interaction between disciplines; faces funding difficulties for research and development; encourages a greater long-term commitment to research; and shares concerns about the part-time nature of research.

The modes and patterns of research differ dramatically between and within disciplines, and this applies to adult education as well. There is no one research methodology appropriate to adult education or to the social sciences in general. Good research means that the design and methodology is determined by the question or the purpose of what is to be researched. Nor is one orientation to research more respectable than another. Any continuing debate betweenthe legitimacy of so called qualitative and quantitative orientations to research would be imature. Furthermore, to take the initiative or to promote research does not degrade either the quality of the product nor the presitige of the producer of research. Perhaps adult education and the social sciences in general require more effective research management skills. We do need to be more aware of the impact and the potential applications of research findings.

Adult education shares many other concerns expressed by the social sciences. We share a concern for: the ethics of undertaking and interpreting research; sexist language in research; the concern for continuity in research; and the need for developmental as well as basic research. Furthermore, we are guided by some very basic principles, not the least of which is the participation of individuals in planning and research, whenever this is possible. We share with the social sciences a concern for many special groups in society, including the elderly, youth, women, and native studies and the broader concern for education and equality in a changing society.

With the social sciences, we are committed to the training of our own members, in addition to benefiting from those trained in other disciplines. We are also committed to the continuing education of our own members and adult education has made an important contribution to conceptualizing and emphasizing the importance of life-long, usually non-formal, education.

Compared to other members of the social sciences, adult education has had limited influence on the development of public policy but this is changing to some extent. Government policies relating to the support of a learning society are being developed and the theory and practice of adult education is making some impact on these policies.

As scientists, we are charaterized by certain attitudes about asking questions and seeking knowledge, by a systematice approach to seeking answers to these questions, by the ability to select appropriate methodologies for collecting and interpretating information, and for building theory and a body of knowledge in our specialized fields of study.

The Federation and its associates and members also express concern over integrating the social sciences into public discussion of the impact that science and technology are having and will continue to have. .It is important to understand the relevance of industrial and social needs and the nature of having effective liaison and cooperation with the business and all sectors, of society, and the importance of developing effective means for technology transfer.

With the social sciences in general, we share an interaction with a multitude of government ministries and departments. There is no one ministry to which adult education relates, emphasizing once again the breadth of concerns shared within adult education.

There is no doubt that we in adult education can benefit from the work of the Federation, through the literature that it acquires and disseminates, through the forum that it provides in interacting with others in the social sciences, and through the lobbying which it does for the social sciences and adult education. On the other hand, adult education has a contribution to make to the Federation.

Comments from Reg Wickett. I want to look at things from the perspective, first of all, of the historical aspects of our relationship with the social sciences. Then I want to examine the social science themselves, and to talk, finally, about the processes of training, something that is of particular interest to me in the field of adult education. As I reflected on our history and its relationship to the social sciences I came to one conclusion. I think we have been a group of pirates. We like to think of ourselves as missionaries but I think we have taken a whole lot from other people over the years, so if we are a ship we would have to fly the skull and crossbones. Why have we behaved like this? Well I guess when we started up, other people were much more established than we were so we took what we could get from them. We chose to disassociate from others in education because we thought that a lot of things they were doing did not have much to say to us. We look at the social sciences as another group of people who were concerned with human behaviour. Generally speaking, these were people who had something to say that we thought we could translate into action. We therefore took from them what we could get and began to identify, perhaps more closely, with some of the social sicentists such as Rogers and Maslow and others and later we could identify with some of the people who were writing in the field of adult education.

What we find then are two social science disciplines contributing a great deal to our field, that is, psychology and sociology. Psychology has especially made a contribution to our practice and theories about learning. When we didn't have a theoretical base, we had to find one, wherever we could get it and naturally we went to the people who were most likely to be the source of a good theoretical base for the kinds of things we were doing.

Another point that I would like to make is that in our early years, the field of adult education didn't have its own educational set-up. We weren't training our own people. Someone else had to train them and many of the people that came to our field came out of the social sciences, because there were interested in people. We still derive a great deal from the social sciences and these formulate much of our theoretical base. However, we are now developing our own capacity to develop our theoretical base. We are no longer dependent but now have an interdependent relationship with the social sciences. I would like to think that in time many social scientists will begin to recognize the kinds of things that we can share with them, which in turn can contribute to the evolution to social science theory.

As I thought about the social sciences, it occurred to me that we are really not talking about a monolith. We are not talking about one solid block to which we can relate. In fact, the social sciences are made up of a series of groups and perhaps we can tenderly or easily relate to some parts of that grouping than others. It seems obvious that we spent more time relating to psychology and sociology than we do to political science and economics, that may explain why we don't do as well as we should when it comes to dealing with governments and government agencies. We have a lot to learn from certain parts of the social sciences which we haven't as yet fully explored.

The third thing that I would like to talk about is training. What do we do in terms of preparing people to be practitioners in the field of adult education? When I examine both university faculty, and students and practitioners in our programmes, I would guess that in our situation, somewhere between 25% - 34% of our students and perhaps as many faculty have some kind of undergraduate training in the social sciences. All of the students in our graduate program must have taken introductory courses in the social sciences. This is a policy at the University of Saskatchewan. What happens when it comes to the process of training people in our courses? All one has to do is look at our bibliographies and one can see the number of citations that come from the social sciences, especially citations from psychology, sociology, community development, adult learning and adult development. Sometimes we read these materials in the original, sometimes we read the social sciences in translation, but the key thing is that we are drawing much on the social sciences as we prepare people to work in the field of adult education. The question for me is: to what extent can we establish our interdependent relationship with the social sciences? To what extent is it possible for us to develop our own theoretical base and draw from the social sciences when we want to, on an equal basis. How can we evolve so that we stand on equal footing with our colleagues in the social sciences?

Comments from Teresa MacNeil. What are we trying to settle as we address questions about the relationship between adult education and social science. As people concerned about the study of adult education, do we want to insure that our pursuit is creditable enough to rank as a discipline within the social science set? Is that what we want? I find that it is very important to consider what is happening in adult education in relationship to the social sciences. It is important in a way to achieve some clarity about the methodological issues and about the structure of explanations. In other words, it is important as a way to inform ourselves about the progress of our efforts to have systematic and responsibly supported explanations for phenomenon in our field. It is a means to gain benefits similar to the gains of social science in its referral to political science models. There, social scientists are confronted with situations which are relatively possibly to duplicate.

In my view it is not a good usage of time to concern ourselves about whether or how well adult education ranks as a member of the social sciences. We must inform ourselves about what is happening in areas of the social sciences which relate to our adult education area of study but we should not spend time endeavouring to be recognized as part of the social science set. That would detract us from endeavoring to establish some consensus among ourselves about what we agree upon as fact, what we agree upon as fair assumptions, and what we agree upon as valid procedure for sound enquiry. Settling those matters ourselves as adult educators is far more important than ensuring that we are seen as legitimate within the realm of the social sciences. Besides, if we are diligent about determining what is established facts, what is fair assumption and what is valid procedure for sound enquiry we will not have to worry very much about our place among scientists of any type because we will be responsible scientists.

The field of adult education, as far as I'm concerned, is a field of practice. As an area of study it is not quite comparable to sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology or such of the other eighteen probable areas which seeks to explain a broad range of social phenomenon. In my view, adult education is highly dependent upon those explanations that we get of the social phenomenon but it is not another discipline whose explanations will broaden that range. It relies upon accurate descriptions of social phenomena, of explanations about the adult learner who is the subject of the adult educator's study. As we become more precise about the circumstances of the adult learner we become more precise about the ways to enable him to use those circumstances as roots to effective learning. The primary concern of the adult educator is to enable the adult learner to make effective use of learning opportunities, whether she is evaluating legislation or designing architecture features for a community school or adapting computer programs or writing literacy materials.

Whatever the area of practice in the field, the adult educator is the facilitator of learning. Her line of enquiry, her research is centered upon ways to achieve the best learning outcomes, using an array of methods and techniques within the range of peculiar circumstances of the adult learner: the array of circumstances that the social sciences has helped us to understand. Her study in adult education is a study of practice. When the adult educator does research in such areas as learning styles or perspective transformation or participation patterns the researcher is, in my view, establishing grounds for accurately describing circumstances of the learner. It is research that appropriately belongs to psychologists, the sociologist, the social psychologist and if we can help those social scientists to be more conscious of the need in our field for such ground work, we might end up having to do a lot less ourselves. That would free us to attend more strickly to the discovery, to the relationship, between what we do to facilitate learning and its effect on the adult learner. Strictor attention to our teaching-learning enterprise will tighten the way we as a group communicate, communicate as adult educators, within our own enterprise.

I believe that our communication needs a lot of tightening. We have difficulty communicating about what we do as adult educators. Take for example the three areas I mentioned earlier. The first area relates to what we accept in our field as established fact. Most of what we regard as established fact in adult education is either the product of considerable work in the social sciences, for example, developmental psychology, or social science work that we have done ourselves, for example, learning styles or participation studies, or general descriptions of useful concepts such as "life-long learning" or "the learning society". We have very, very little established fact about effective ways to intervene as facilitators of adult learning.

Secondly, thereis the area of what we accept in our field as fair assumption. We have many of these and they are the basis for intensified research in our field. Take for example the fair assumption that the adult is capable of locating and using a broad range of learning resources. Well, which kinds of adults are capable of using which learning resources in which learning situation etc. Reliable responses to these questions would gradually transfer some of our fair assumptions to the level of the established fact and it would greatly increase the precision of our communication with each other. When we know the dimension, the many facets of the terms we use, we will reduce the practice of labeling one another with such gross terms as humasistic, behaviorist or refer to learned-centered verses subject-centered. These labels are useful for journalists. They don't belong as descriptors in a field of study.

Thirdly, there is the area of our agreement about what is valid procedure for sound enquiry. Here are the areas from which we have gained a great deal from the social scientists. With tighter communication about the methodologies that we use to investigate the function of adult educators, we can become more discriminating in our choice of methodologies. Focusing on our own enterprise will lead investigators along the continuum of acceptable methodologies, be they survey research or experimentation. It's a continuum, not a higher verses a lower quality. I believe that we have yet much to learn about research methods from social scentists as well as focusing attention on our own enterprise from which we can learn from ourselves. Last year at AERC in Montreal I heard the very same arguments about grounded theory that I heard at the 1971 AEA conference in New York. We as adult educators were still looking at it as a bold method, distinct from or maybe even superior to hypotheses testing, rather than viewing it as a way to produce hypotheses for testing or a way to deal with ill-defined circumstances, That's all that grounded theory is good for, a way of getting something broken down, something we can test. It is time we were contributing precise directives for the conduct of grounded theory method, to fit it firmly into the spectrum of reliable research methods. It is time to stop arguing that it is or is not a fair method. We must endeavour to communicate in detail about the range of valid enquiry procedures that will form our preface.

In these brief remarks I tried to present a few points. One, that our work in adult education is closely related too but distinct from the social sciences, social science being necessary for the development of our practice of adult education. I see a rough analogy, and please remember I say rough, between the relationship of medecine or engineering for the physical sciences and adult education's relation to the social sciences. Two, that our practice of adult education has very important research demands which, if we were to focus on them more closely, would serve to contribute a great deal of precision to our communication about the study of adult education. Unless we regard it as distinct from the social scientist or the social sciences we will continue to be imprecise about the study of practice. Finally, I tried to make the point that as we become more rigorous students of adult education as practice, our relationship with the world of science, be this social or psychical, will develop as a natural relationship among mutually respectful peers.

B. Social Science Federation of Canada (SSFC)

What follows are comments about the Social Science Federation of Canada which I have selected from literature about the federation, and this has been integrated with the presentation by Dr. Pouyez.

Historical Background

> In its forty years of existence, the SSFC, previously called the Social Science Research Council of Canada, has undergone a significant transformation from a pioneer funding agency of social science research in Canada to a democratic federation of learned societies and university representatives. Throughout its history, the SSFC has nonetheless remained faithful to the initial impetus of its founding fathers to create an independent and representative body committed to the development of social science research in Canada.
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> The Social Science Research Council of Canada was founded in 1940 by a group of eminent scholars for the purpose of providing financial support to research in our disciplines. It is a tribute to their initiative and forethought that the SSRCC's research support programmes were endorsed and funded from 1958 by the new Canada Council which eventually took over their administration in 1964.
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> The establishment of the Canada Council in 1958 led the SSRCC to reassess its role, functions and financial viability as a grantor. American foundations, with the creation of the Canada Council, terminated their general purpose research grants, that had been the almost exclusive source of support for the SSRCC programmes. The 1964 patriation by the Canada Council of the responsibilities for the competitions launched the SSRCC into a period of soul searching culminating in the Timlin-Faucher report of 1968. This report stressed the importance of an autonomous organization representing and able to speak with authority on behalf of the Canadian community of social scientists. The new role of the SSRCC as a communication medium, rather than as a research funding and planning body, required a thorough reorganization. In 1969 the SSRCC was reconstituted as a democratic council of learned societies and university representatives. This structure remained in existence until 1976, when, in the face of the impending creation of SSHRCC (Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council) the SSRCC reorganized once again, adopting its present structures and changing its name to the Social Science Federation of Canada
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> Since its formation the Federation has been a driving force behind a number of Canadian academic and cultural initiatives. From 1940 to 1957, it was the only Canadian funding agency for social science research. The Federation, with others, pressured for the establishment of the Massey Commission and later the Canada Council from which derived the present granting council for the social sciences, the

SSHRCC. The Federation was also responsible for the publication of the first comprehensive Atlas of Canada and of several fundamental series of books such as The Canadian Centenary History Series, Decision Making in Canada, The Atlantic Provinces Studies, Economic Growth, and a series on the Canadian North.

This brief overview of the Federation's forty years of existence suggests that, despite its successive reorganizations as a result of significant changes in the environment (e.g. the advent of state funding of social science research and the expansion and diversification of the research community), the Federation has strived to become a truly democratic and independent representative and instrument of the social science community in Canada.

Membership

In addition to 50 university representatives, who were members of the Consultative Assembly, the following learned societies are (or have been) members of the SSFC. Canadian Association of Law Teachers, Canadian Association of Geographers, Canadian Economics Association, Canadian Historical Association, Canadian Psychological Association, Canadian Political Science Association, Société canadienne de science politique, Canadian Sociology and Anthropology Association. The SSRCC/SSFC gradually came to include the following members: Administrative Sciences Association of Canada (1972), Canadian Society for the Study of Education (1972), Canadian Peace Research and Education Association (1978), Canadian University Teachers of Home Economics (1978), Canadian Society for the Study of Higher Education (1979), Canadian Regional Sciences Association (1980), Canadian Industrial Relations Association (1980), Canadian Society for the Study of Adult Education (1983), Canadian Ethnology Society (1983), Association for Canadian Studies (1984), Institute of Public Administration of Canada (1984), Canadian Association of Research Libraries (1984). The Canadian Asian Studies Association was a member in 1978-79 only.

Purpose and Operation

The overall objectives of the Federation are to:

- present effectively the social sciences in Canada and abroad;
- contribute to the development of effective policies for social research in Canada, e.g. demonstrate needs of modern social science research as well as the most effective use of research potential;
- facilitate and initiate research in the social sciences, especially interdisciplinary research;
- increase the availability of social science knowledge to all sectors of society on a more equal basis and communicate the results of social science research;

- develop the potential of the social sciences to contribute to the analysis and formation of Canadian social policies within government, business and labour.

As a way of achieving its goals, the Federation has set up committees on research policy, statistics, archives, communications, funding, international relations, freedom of information, information systems and publishing.

There are three categories of membership in the Federation: constitutent members - national social science associations; associate members-universities, colleges, research centres and institutes and other non-profit organizations, e.g. the Public Archives of Canada, the Canadian Conference of the Arts, and the Institute for Research on Public Policy; and members-at-large, up to 20 persons elected by the General Assembly for the special contributions they can make to the achievements and aims of the SSFC. In all, the Federation represents more than 12,00 Canadian social scientists. Despite its names, the SSFC is actually a confederation of learned societies.

The General Assembly of the Federation meets once a year, and represents all three categories of membership. The Board of Directors is the governing body responsible for developing the policies and conducting the affairs of the Federation. The executive committee oversees and plans the affairs of the SSFC. The secretariat is in Ottawa.

Activities

The Federation focuses on three major areas of activities as follows:

- The Federation as a pressure (or representational) group. It is important that the Canadian academic community be able to convey its needs to government and its agencies, and have an impact on the development of science policy. One of the most recent major examples of this is the lobbying that was done by the various constituentents of the Federation in supporting, and encouraging the Federal Cabinet to support, the five year plan of the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council.
- The Federation as an Information Source. In accomplishing this goal, the Federation monitors the policy planning and policy formulation of government departments and interprets their needs to social science researchers. A wide variety of other information is gathered and shared with members of the Federation. The SSFC is therefore in liaison with government and other agencies, to inform these agencies of the work and objectives of the Federation and to get to know the agencies better in terms of goals, needs and the ways in which they support the social sciences. Some of the government agencies of particular interest to CASAE/ACEEA are: Secretary of State; Department of Communications; the Ministry of State for Social Development; the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs; Statistics Canada; Health and Welfare; Ministry of Labour; Canadian

International Development Agency, and Correctional Services. The Federation also publishes a journal, Social Sciences in Canada of which all members of CASAE/ACEEA receive free copies. The Federation has recently launched a public awareness radio program series, in order to bring to the attention of the general public an awareness of the relevance of the social sciences to daily life.

- The Federation as a Forum, where ideas and experiences can be exchanged.

The Federation also has been involved in two studies: one on peer evaluation; the other on sexist bias in research.

Jointly with the Canadian Federation for the Humanities, the SSFC administer an Aid to Scholarly Publications Programme which assists the publication of works of advanced scholarship which make an important contribution to the advancement of knowledge in the social sciences. The programme publishes approximately 150 books a year. Individuals and publishers have direct access to this source of public funds. In addition, reports and publications of the Federation that will be of interest to CASAE/ACEEA members include: Research on Productivity of Relevance to Canada; Advancement of Social Science Research in Canada in the 1980's; Brief to the Task Force on Federal Policies and Programmes for Technology Development; Social Sciences Research Funding: An International Perspective.

The Federation also makes funds available to scholarly associations that wish to plan joint programmes at the time of the Learned Societies meetings. An example of this is the joint meeting on adult education and the peace movement, involving CASAE/ACEEA and the Canadian Peace Research and Education Association, being planned as part of this year's annual meeting.

Finally, the Science Policy and Research Committee considers, recommends and promotes long-term policies to facilitate social science research as well as responding to current issues affecting the conduct of social science research.

Readability as Applied to an ABE Assessment Instrument

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the procedure for applying readability formulae to a standardized assessment instrument [Levenson's Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scales (IPS)] and to modify the instrument for use in an ABE program. The Fog, Flesch and Fry readability formulae were selected to examine the readability of the scales for an adult basic education (ABE) population. Application of the formulae indicated that the scales needed to be modified to a lower reading level. Item writing procedures, quality comparisons, application of the formulae and a Q-sort were used to develop a modified IPC suitable for an ABE learner with reading skills of the fourth- and fifth-grade range. Results of a field trial using the MIPC are reported. Comprehension limitations of the readability formulae are discussed.

While conducting research in adult basic education (ABE) involving the measurement of the internal-external locus of control construct, it was increasingly apparent that the instrument was difficult for adult learners to read. Understanding of the intent of the 24 items in the Levenson Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scales (IPC) was therefore hindered. Locus of control is a personality variable derived from Rotter's (1966) social learning theory. It refers to the degree to which individuals perceive the events in their lives as being a consequence of their own actions (Lefcourt, 1981). People who generally believe that reinforcements are controlled by forces external to themselves such as fate, chance, luck and powerful others are referred to as externals. Other people who tend to believe that their own behaviours are the primary factors in receipt of reinforcements are termed internals.

Over the past four decades one of the problems in adult education has been the assessment of readability--how to tell whether a particular piece of writing is likely to be readable by a particular group of adult readers. In examining the phenomenon of a test or scale being difficult for adult learners to read in a research setting, the concept of readability was once again invoked.

Readability

According to Dale and Chall (1948) readability, in the broadest sense, is the sum total (including interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the success which a group of readers have with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at optimum speed and find it interesting.

This definition of readability considers three major aspects of the reading process: comprehension, fluency and interest. Comprehension refers to the understanding of words and phrases, and the relating of ideas in the passage to our own experience. Fluency is the extent to which a person can read a given text at optimum speed. This element emphasizes the perceptual aspects of reading. The third component refers to the motivational factors which will affect interest. These three elements are not separate but interact with each other to affect readability.

McLaughlin (1969) defines readability as the degree to which a given class of people find certain reading matter compelling and comprehensible. This definition stresses both the characteristics of the reader as well as the degree of "compellingness" of the text. He argues that a definition of readability must be based on the characteristics of the readers, as it can be assumed that people will tend to continue to read only that which they understand. Alternatively, readability refers to the ease of understanding of written materials due to the style of writing used (Klare, 1975). The style of writing (or how the content of the writing is stated) can be measured in such a way that a numerical value can be assigned to each writing style. These values are assigned through the use of readability formulae where the numerical value that results from the measurement of style quantifies the ease or difficulty of the writing. With most formulae this numerical value has been translated into an educational skill level associated with the material.

Historical Perspective

Abram (1981) states that the history of readability dates back to 900 A.D., when word counts were used as a rough index of reading ease. Lorge (1944) explains how the Talmudists, in compiling and studying the body of laws called the Talmud, counted the occurrences of words and ideas in seeking to distinguish differences in meaning. Modern research into readability began in 1921 when Thorndike published his list of English words used most frequently in texts. Assumptions were made that the more frequently a word was used the more familiar readers became with it and the easier it was to read. During the twenties, research activities concentrated on looking for word factors that could be used to predict readability. Research broadened during the 30's and throughout the 1940's, deriving formulae that could accurately predict readability using the least number of factors.

Readability Formulae. A readability formula or index "is like a yardstick that helps us measure certain qualities in the writing so we can make objective judgments about reading level" (Lauback & Koschnick, 1977, p.12). Many readability formulae have been developed as a result of research into factors within writing that correlated highly with style difficulty.

Most readability formula values are calculated by measuring sentence and word familiarity or word length. A brief discussion follows which presents several widely used readability formulae.

The Lorge Formula. Lorge first published his formula for children's material in 1939. The formula was designed to cover grades 3-12. It set the stage for many to follow by using the Standard Test Lessons in Reading (McCall & Crabbs, 1925) as the criterion of difficulty. The formula considers three factors: average sentence length in words, number of prepositional phrases per 100 words, and the number of different hard words not on the Dale list of 763 words.

The Flesch Formula. Flesch, in 1943, first published his formula using the original McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading as a criterion. In designing it for general adult reading matter, he felt it gave proper attention to abstract words as well as sentence length. The formula uses four factors: number of syllables per 100 words, average number of words per sentence, number of personal words per 100 words and number of personal sentences per 100 sentences.

Dale-Chall Formula. Similar to Flesch's, it used the 1925 McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading as a criterion. It had a 3,000 word list, which was deemed preferable to the 763 word list used by Lorge, especially for the more difficult levels of readability. Flesch's count of personal references was avoided as unnecessary and, in order to keep it easy to use, only two factors were used: average sentence length and percentage of unfamiliar words (words outside the Dale list of 3,000 words).

The Fog Index. Gunning's Fox Index (1952) is similar to Flesch's Reading Ease formula. Rather than counting syllables as Flesch did, Gunning proposed counting words of three or more syllables. He termed these "hard words". The formula is based on two counts--average sentence length and percentage of words having three or more syllables.

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The Readability Graph. Fry developed a "Readability Graph" in 1965 for predicting readability. He used the common formula variables of syllables per 100 words and words per sentence. The user marks the counts of the variables on a graph and then reads the readability grade score directly from it. Fry's graph has been validated using both primary and secondary level materials.

The Bormuth Formula. In 1969, Bormuth published the most extensive readability analysis yet made. Bormuth used 330 passages of about 100 words each, ranging in difficulty from first grade to college and covering a wide range of subject matter. The cloze procedure was used as the criterion of difficulty (deleting every fifth word). His formulae contain from 14 to 20 variables each. Bormuth also developed multiple regression equations to predict word length, minimal punctuation unit length and sentence length.

The Mugford Readalibity Chart. Mugford (1970) developed a predictive method for readability in the form of a graphic solution much like Fry's. His Readability Chart was intended for 5-1/2- to 15-year reading ages but has been extended to cover material for adults. It uses the common variables of word-length in syllables and sentence-length in words but also takes repetition into account.

Harris-Jacobson Readability Formulae. Harris and Jacobson (1974) developed three readability formulae for primary grade materials. They were based on 481 samples from 56 books, comprising all of the primary grade pupil books in six widely used series of basal readers, totalling 97,868 words.

Review of Literature: Readibility of Adult Materials

Formal procedures have been used to assess the readability of adult magazine materials (Dulin, 1968), vocational materials (Williams, 1979), industrial education textbooks (Clark, 1978), business communication textbooks (Razek & Cone, 1981), economics textbooks (McConnell, 1982), and occupational education textbooks (New York State Educational

Department, 1982). The United States Army evaluated the usefulness of readability formulae for identifying material that would be comprehended by readers at a given reading skill level (Kern, 1980). Extension of this approach was outlined by Marshall (1979) who provided guidelines for analyzing and evaluating textbooks based on comprehensibility rather than readability. Use of readability formulae for writing adult materials to a desired reading level, matching readability levels of material to the reader's skill level and use of these concepts in adult education was documented by Abram (1981). However, the review of research literature did not reveal application of these procedures to standardized testing instruments which was the focus of the present study. The issue here is that test items must be written at appropriate reading difficulty levels if test scores are expected to yield valid results.

As a means to document the nature and extent of the readability problem, research conducted was reviewed and is presented here to provide a context for our work involving adult basic education. The problem of matching student with texts is difficult in the secondary school where there is a tendency for the range of students' reading abilities to broaden as grade level increases. Reading ability of secondary students may span as many as eleven years (Burmeister, 1974; Estes & Vaughan, 1978). Kurzman (1974) confirmed findings of other studies indicating that textbooks used by college freshmen were in most cases several grade levels above the students' reading abilities. Clarke (1977) found that the reading levels of 300 8th-grade students ranged from 6th- to 12th-grade level achievement but their social studies text was written at the 10th-grade level and their science text at an 11th-grade level. Further, Kahle (1979) found four high school biology texts have college readability levels, regardless of which formula [Dale-Chall (1948), FOG, or SMOG (Klare, 1963)] was used to assess readability.

Kirkwood et al. (1980) conducted a literacy survey ("literacy" was used to mean matching the reader's skill with the reading material) to determine the overlap in the reading abilities of students and the language difficulty of reading materials used in schools. Their concern was that the success of the information transfer depends to a large extent on whether the students have sufficient linguistic ability to understand the language of the reading material or, conversely, on whether the materials are written at a level of linguistic complexity appropriate to the language ability of the students. They found that most of the reading passages were too difficult for most of the students and that, especially for students at the low end of the reading ability scale and in lower grades (4 to 7), there are few appropriate materials. The general conclusion was that there is a substantial mismatch: most of the books in use or available for use are too difficult for most of their potential readers. This will not surprise most classroom teachers (see Bormuth, 1977).

Based upon the authors' experience and a review of the research literature, it seemed that readability is an issue in adult basic education and that systematic procedures should be considered for implementation in evaluating written materials. As mentioned earlier, a review of the literature on readability formulae indicated that the Dale-Chall (1948), Harris-Jacobson (Harris & Sipay, 1975), Fry (1972), FOG, SMOG (Klare, 1963), and Flesch (1951) were the most suitable and have the greatest potential for use with an adult audience. These formulae represent the two major approaches to the calculation of readability: estimating the number of unfamiliar words versus the number of syllables per word, in addition to sentence length. Although these formulae have been used with adult audiences, only minimal attention has been given to the reading difficulties and characteristics of the ABE learner when responding to standardized tests.

The Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the procedures for applying readability formulae to a standardized test and a modified version of the test. The personality construct "locus of control" has been extensively used by investigators in a wide variety of situations and has occupied a central position in personality research for more than fifteen years. Thus, different locus of control scales have been developed. In conducting research in an ABE environment Levenson's Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scales (IPC) were considered to be a representative measure of the construct.

Levenson's Internal, Powerful Others and Chance (IPC) Scales

The IPC Scales were developed as a reconceptualization of Rotter's I-E Scale. Levenson (1981) states that the multi-dimensionsal view of locus of control developed from questions about the validity of combining expectancies of fate, chance and powerful others under the heading of external control. Individuals who believe in the influence of powerful others (one external orientation) will behave and think differently from individuals who feel the world is unordered and unpredictable (a second external dimension). In the former case, a potential for control over events exists.

The scales are composed of items adapted from Rotter's scale and items written specifically to measure beliefs about the operation of the three dimensions of control: beliefs in personal control (Internal Scale); powerful others (Powerful Others Scale); and chance or fate (Chance Scale).

> The I Scale measures the extent to which people believe that they have control over their own lives (e.g., "When I make plans I am almost certain to make them work"); the P Scale deals with powerful others (e.g., "In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me"); and the C Scale is concerned with perceptions of chance control (e.g., "It's not wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad luck"). (Lefcourt, 1981, p. 17).

Pretesting on 36 items included item analysis and correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). The resulting IPC instrument has three eight-item subscales with a six-point Likert-type format, which are administered to subjects as a single test having 24 items.

Internal consistency reliability estimates are only moderate. According to Levenson (1981), this is to be expected when the items sample a variety of situations. For an adult psychiatric sample ($N = 115$), alpha reliabilities were .51 for the I Scale, .72 for the P Scale, and .73 for the C Scale (Wallston, Wallston & Devellis, 1978). Levenson (1973) found similar estimates for a hospitalized psychiatric sample (.67, .82 and .79, respectively). Split-half reliabilities (Spearman-Brown) are .62, .66 and .64 for the IPC Scales. Test-retest reliabilities for a one-week and seven-week period are both in the .60 to .79 range (Lee, 1976; Levenson, 1973).

Levenson (1981) states that the validity of the scales has been demonstrated through convergent and discriminant methods (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) designed to show significant low order correlations with other measures of the general construct as well as a pattern of theoretically expected positive and negative relationships with other variables. However, she does not clearly describe what is meant by low order correlations of the construct validation analysis.

Levenson (1981) reported the means and standard deviations found in various adult populations such as psychiatric patients, cancer patients, the elderly, rural women, prisoners and alcoholics using the IPC Scales. Walters (1977) in an evaluative study of suggestive-accelerative learning and teaching as a method of teaching vocational agriculture, tested a sample of ninth graders using the scales. One of the limiting characteristics of the instrument is that it has not been standardized on an adult basic education population. The sophistication of the wording may cause a percentage of the learners with low reading skills to not understand scale items.

Levenson (1981) states that there are five differences between the IPC Scales and the Rotter I-E Scale:

1. They are presented as Likert scales, instead of in a forced-choice format so that their three dimensions are more statistically independent of one another than are the two dimensions of Rotter's scale.
2. The IPC Scales make a personal-ideological distinction. All statements are phrased so as to pertain only in the person answering. They measure the degree to which an individual feels he or she has control over what happens, not what the person feels is the case for "people in general."
3. The items in the scales contain no wording that might imply modifiability of specific issues. Both factors of personal versus ideological control and system modifiability were found by Gurin et al. (1969) to be contaminating factors in Rotter's I-E Scale.

4. The IPC Scales are constructed in such a way that there is a high degree of parallelism in every three-item set.

5. Correlations between items on the new scales and Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale are negligible and non-significant (Lefcourt, 1981, p. 18).

Because of these alleged measurement improvements, the IPC Scales were considered superior to the Rotter I-E Scale for the purposes of the research in an ABE population. Although Levenson's Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scales (IPC) have been used with adult populations, further investigation of the scales' readability characteristics was deemed necessary. Since adult learners who have reading levels at grade equivalencies from 5 to 12 enroll in community college retraining programs, it was necessary to employ an instrument having a readability index of grade 5 equivalency, the assumed lowest reading level of the adult group. A number of readability principles were considered for use in modifying the IPC to make it consistent with the reading skills of the adult learner. The first step in assessing the readability of the IPC was to apply current readability formulas to the existing instrument. Three formulae were used: Fog Index (1968), Fry Readability Graph (1972) and the Flesch Formula (1974). Laubach and Koschnick (1977) suggest the use of the Fog Index and the Fry Readability Graph for measuring the readability level of adult materials. The Fog Index was developed for use with adult materials, not children's materials and yields scores equivalent to grade levels. Absolute values of the Fog Index, however, are often slightly higher than the scores derived from other formulas. Thus, the slightly higher score derived from the Fog Index provides greater assurance that readers will be able to cope easily and accurately with the assessed materials.

In contrast, the Fry Readability Graph is more useful to evaluators of materials than to writers preparing documents. It is routinely used by Literacy Volunteers of America. There are two notable limitations inherent in the formula: in the word count, proper names and numbers are omitted for assessment purposes and counting the number of syllables in each word tends to blur the perception of which are the difficult words. The Flesch (1974) formula was included in this study because it provides a human interest score derived from an assessment of the "personal words and sentences." Application of the Flesch formula yields two scores: reading ease and human interest, each having a range from 0 to 100. The interpretation for reading ease is from unreadable to readable where readable means material that is understandable by people who have finished fourth grade and therefore, in the language of the Census are functionally literate (Flesch, 1974, p. 259).

Results

Characteristics of the three readability formulae are presented in Table 1. Sampling procedures of the formulae are very similar. Reading specialists have raised the issue as to how many samples give a good readability estimate. The three formulae used in the study recommend taking three 100-word samples from different parts of a text. Fitzgerald (1979) points out that in using the Fry Readability Graph to estimate the readability level of several secondary texts and basal workbooks three samples did not give consistent estimates. He states that such materials is not consistent in its difficulty level. In this study the IPC Scales are less than 500 words in total. By sampling the beginning, middle and end of the Scales it seemed that consistent estimates would be calculated. However, this problem of sampling procedures raises another question for investigators modifying test items. Reading of continuous prose may differ from disconnected options. Test items are written in a way which is more information loaded. Thus assessment of comprehension becomes important.

In calculating sentence length, the Fog and Flesch formulae both arrive at an average sentence length by counting the number of words and sentences. The Fry formula is slightly different yielding an average number of sentences per 100 words. Calculation of the average number of syllables are factors in both the Fry and the Flesch formulae. The Fog Index, instead, estimates the percentage of hard words. Each formula has a different method of finding and interpreting grade level or score. A human interest and reading ease score are only calculated in the Flesch formula.

Results of applying each formula to the IPC Scales appear in Table 2. As previously mentioned, the Fry and Flesch formulae do not calculate the percentage of difficult words. This factor difference explains the empty cells in Table 2. Values reported indicate that the IPC Scales are not suitable for the ABE learner having a grade 5 reading skill level.

Since the results confirmed that the IPC Scales are not appropriate for the designated group of ABE learners, the instrument was modified.

Development of a Modified Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scale

Item writing procedure. The 24 items of the IPC Scales were modified according to the steps outlined by Lauback (1977), pp. 33-35, and using the following major resources:

1. Flesch, R., The Art of Readable Writing, 1974
2. Laubach, R., and Koschnick, K., Using Readability, 1977.
3. Thorndike, E., A Teacher's Word Book of Thirty Thousand Words, 1944.
4. Thorndike-Barnhart Dictionary, 1969

Comprehensibility. According to Marshall (1979), low readability of a selection does not ensure high comprehensibility. When sentences and vocabulary are oversimplified, cohesion is lost. As a result, comprehension becomes much more difficult because the reader must infer the missing information. Low comprehensibility occurs when there is no connection between the selection and the knowledge of the reader. Marshall (1979) suggests the use of a checklist as an indication of comprehensibility. Although Marshall's concept of comprehensibility pertains to books and articles, guidelines for instrument or scale comprehensibility were not found in the literature. Therefore, the checklist procedure was adapted in modifying the scale. This is a methodological limitation.

Four checklist questions were selected as the guidelines for determining the comprehensibility of the modified items.

1. Are the key vocabulary terms defined clearly? Are they used in a variety of different contexts that are likely to be meaningful to the learners?
2. Are all new concepts introduced in the context of familiar concepts? Are they well defined in the scale sentence?
3. Are ideas clearly related to each other? Will the learner be able to understand the relationship among the ideas?
4. Has the author of the instrument addressed an audience of readers with backgrounds similar to those of the learners who will be reading the scale?

A panel of judges comprising two ABE teachers from a community college and one ABE teacher from a school board examined the readability of the modified scale. The above checklist procedure was used. Revisions were then made by the senior author, who is also an ABE teacher in a community college. Each item was modified. A comparison of the original IPC and revised IPC items was then assessed according to categories as follows: words, sentences, ideas (the nature of the intended statement or facts presented in the passage) and approach (the "personality" of the writing assessed as being dynamic vs. static, active vs. passive, or personal vs. impersonal).

Results from comparing the IPC and the modified IPC (MIPC) on the basis of words, sentences, ideas and approach are presented in Table 3. As the table indicates, the MIPC contains words with fewer than three syllables, is an average of three words shorter in sentence length, has fewer abstract thoughts and is less negative in approach. Incorporated changes were assumed to result in lower readability level for the modified instrument which was assessed by application of three readability formulae (Fog, Fry, & Flesch) on the MIPC. Readability formula scores for the MIPC are presented in Table 2. The Fog Index score for readability grade level was 5.4. The Fry Readability Graph plot points indicated a fourth grade range.

Q-sort. A Q-sort was conducted in order to determine if the modified items were still measuring the three dimensions of locus of control. Q-sort is a relative rating task which is used to study similarities among ratings of sentiments by different persons (Nunnally, 1978). It grew out of a general methodology developed by Stephenson (1953) for the study of verbalized attitudes, self-description, preferences, and other issues in social psychology, clinical psychology and the study of personality. According to Nunnally (1978), if one uses the Q-sort as a rating method, it is not necessarily tied to the use of particular techniques of mathematical analysis, as are other methods.

A Q-sort adaptation was conducted on two groups. A rating form was constructed to include three statements describing the conceptualization of the IPC Scales (see Appendix B). The items of MIPC were read by the author to a group of three doctoral candidates in Adult Education (Group 1). Each member marked the item number in the rating column that he/she felt represented the concept. The same procedure was followed with a group of three Adult Education faculty members (Group 2). In this case, the modified items were read to each faculty member in individual interviews. Results revealed that all items of the MIPC were rated according to their conceptualization, except for item 20. It appears that item 20 "If I get into a car crash it's mostly because of the other driver" was classified as being appropriate for all three control orientations. As a result, an additional item suggesting a powerful others control orientation was constructed and included in the field trial.

Typing of the MIPC. The MIPC was typed with sample margins and a pleasing amount of "white space". Laubach and Koshnick (1977) suggest an 11-12 point type size for most persons above the third grade reading level. The MIPC was typed using an 11-point type size, roman type (with serifs). Three extra points of leading between each item and each rating scale were employed to improve ease of reading. Length of type was fixed at five-and-one-half inches, using lower case.

Follow-up Study. The results confirmed that the MIPC had a readability grade level suitable for an adult with reading skills of the fourth- to fifth-grade range. The Flesch reading ease score of 91.2 confirms that the MIPC should be very easily read and that the instrument is interesting to read as indicated by the human interest score of 53. On the basis of these results, we concluded that the MIPC can be said to be operational for ABE learners having reading skills of a grade five equivalency and higher.

In order to test the readability level of MIPC Scales, a field trial was conducted. A total of 39 subjects enrolled in an adult education program participated in the field trial. Students were told to complete the MIPC, circle any word that they could not read and underline any word or phrase they could not understand. All of the 39 subjects reported no difficulty in reading the MIPC. Comprehensibility was assessed and was found appropriate for the adult education group. It was decided that any word or phrase that yielded 15% or over in level of comprehensibility difficulty would be further modified. The introduction to the MIPC "Directions" was revised.

The data were entered into LERTAP (Nelson, 1974), which is an item and test analysis computer program. The primary objectives for using LERTAP are test development and test scoring. Product-moment correlations between the three modified scales were similar to those reported in the literature. Product-moment correlations of each modified item with the three subscales (corrected for part/whole inflation), total scale score, Hoyt estimate reliability and standard error of measurement were calculated to assess the revised isntrument.

The Hoyt estimates of internal consistency for an ABE sample (N = 39) were .33 for MI, .90 for MP and .85 for the MC. Levenson (1974) reported coefficient alpha reliabilities for a student sample (N = 152) of .64, .77 and .78). Wallston, Wallston and DeVellis (1978) found similar estimates for their adult sample (N = 115) of .51, .72 and .73, respectively, as did Levenson (1973) for a hospitalized psychiatric sample (.67, .82 and .79).

Discussion

Although application of principles to modify an instrument to assure a low readability level did confirm that the procedure has desired merit for producing reading materials having readability qualities appropriate to the reading levels of ABE learners, it is recommended that a more comprehensive adult readability formula be derived which incorporates additional characteristics beyond word difficulty level and sentence length. Evidence to support the recommendation was reported by Kern (1980) who concluded that (1) present readability formulae cannot match material to readers at targeted reading grade levels, (2) re-writing to lower the formula reading grade level score does not increase comprehension, and (3) requiring that text be written to satisfy a targeted reading grade level score focuses attention on meeting the score requirement rather than on organizing the material to meet the readers' information needs. In a similar conclusion Sternglass (1976) maintains that teachers can gain only a very rough estimate of readability level from the existing diagnostic measures. Bruce (1981) argues that current readability formulae ignore or violate current knowledge about the reading process. Most formulae affect only sentence length and word difficulty while ignoring factors that influence text comprehensibility, such as cohesion, the number of inferences required, the number of items to remember, the complexity of ideas, rhetorical structure, dialect, required schemata, punctuations, clauses and double phrases. Nor do they account for reader-specific factors such as interest and the purpose of reading. The Fry Readability Graph and the Fog Index do not yield comprehension information or personal interest scores and thus are inadequate for use with ABE learners. Flesch did incorporate a human interest score which is interpretable "for people who have finished fourth grade and therefore, in the language of the Census, are functionally literate" (Flesch, 1974, p. 259) which is a step in the desired direction. However, a severe limitation in the use of readability formulae is their failure to assess the meaning or comprehension of text. Marshall (1979) states that comprehension is the process of dealing with meaning and from this perspective readability and comprehensibility are not interchangeable terms. In a similar argument Kirkwood et al (1980) maintain that

> the problem with the conventional use of readability formulas is the arbitrariness of the numeric scores they yield. The numbers are not referenced to the skills of the students who are expected to read the material. It is very difficult to determine what student populations the "grade-equivalent" scores from a coventional readability formula refer to (p. viii)

Psycholinguistics provides an approach to understanding how students read and how they succeed or fail at extracting information from passages. Smith (1978) has written an excellent book on understanding reading that is a useful reference for this topic and Holland (1981) discusses psycholinguistic alternatives to readability formulae. A review by Bormuth (1977) listed over one hundred reasonable linguistic variables which might be used to predict passage difficulty. Some are very simple and mechanical, such as average word size; others involve counting deep linguistic transformations and would require a skilled linguist for measurement. For practical purposes, a few simple variables have been found to account for most of the variation in the difficulty of ordinary textual materials. Further development and research on readability and comprehension is needed to examine new variables and to test their performance. Traditional readability formulae are not producing valid results for the wide range of materials to which they are applied.

The nature of readability and associated formulae has been examined in relation to producing materials at the desired reading ability levels and to modifying existing text material. However, a second issue is apparent in this type of work. Instruments such as the IPC are usually developed to produce a set of standardized administrative conditions and associated norms for interpretation purposes. Such procedures are intended to ensure that reliable and valid scores are obtained when using an instrument. If the items are rewritten, one needs to determine that equivalent scores are derived from use of the initial version and the modification. In this sense, the user must be assured that both instruments have comparable validities and that similar interpretations would result from the appropriate use of either instrument.

Within the adult education community it is desirable to have procedures and instruments relevant for use with the ABE learner. A new test assessment formula should include the following factors: sentence length, vocabulary difficulty, personal interest and comprehension. Development in this direction will assist adult educators in better servicing an increasing ABE population.

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Table 1
Characteristics of Readability Formulas

FACTOR \ READABILITY FORMULA	FOG	FRY	FLESCH
SAMPLING PROCEDURES Sample 1-beginning Sample 2-middle Sample 3-end	3 Samples (count to the end of the sentence nearest the 100th word)	3 Samples (count up to the 100th word)	3 Samples (count up to the 100 word mark)
SENTENCE LENGTH	$\frac{\text{number of words}}{\text{number of sentences}}$ = average sentence length	$\frac{\text{100 X no. of sentences}}{\text{number of words}}$ = average number of sentences per 100 words	$\frac{\text{number of words}}{\text{number of sentences}}$ = average sentence length
PERCENTAGE OF HARD WORDS	100 X no. of hard words total number of words = percentage of hard words		
AVERAGE NUMBER OF SYLLABLES		$\frac{\text{100 X no. of syllables}}{\text{number of words}}$ = average number of syllables per 100 words	count number of syllables in 3-100 word samples and divide number of syllables by number of samples
FINDING THE GRADE LEVEL	percentage of hard words plus average sentence length = sum X 0.04 - FOG Index	plot average number of sentences per 100 words and average number of syllables per 100 words in Fry Readability Graph	1. Reading Ease Score (a) multiply average sentence length X 1.015; multiply number of syllables per 100 words X 0.846 (b) add totals (c) subtract sum from 206.835 2. Human Interest Score (a) multiply personal words by 3.635 (b) multiply personal sentences by 0.314
INTERPRETING GRADE LEVEL OR SCORES	number before decimal indicates grade; number after indicates month in that grade	plot points to indicate approximate grade range	1. Reading Ease Score (0-100) 0 is very difficult 2. Human Interest Score (0-100) 0 is dull 100 is dramatic

Table 2

Application of the Readability Formulas to the IPC Scales

FACTOR \ READABILITY FORMULA	FOG		FRY		FLESCH	
	IPC	MIPC	IPC	MIPC	IPC	MIPC
SAMPLES	3	3	3	3	3	3
AVERAGE SENTENCE LENGTH	15.0	8.3	6.8	7.4	14.7	13.2
PERCENTAGE OF DIFFICULT WORDS	16.6	0				
AVERAGE NUMBER OF SYLLABLES			146	121	146	121
READABILITY GRADE LEVEL	8.2	5.4	8th grade	4th grade		
READING EASE SCORE					68.4 (standard)	91.2 (very easy)
HUMAN INTEREST SCORE					49.7 (interesting)	53 (interesting)

Table 3

Readability Qualities of the MIPC and the IPC Scales

FACTOR \ TEST	MIPC	IPC
WORDS	This scale has no difficult words (no long words with 3 or more syllables).	This scale has hard words (long words with 3 or more syllables, i.e., accidental, responsibility, leadership).
SENTENCES	Average sentence length for 3 samples is 13.7 words.	Average sentence length for 3 samples is 14.7 words. Some sentences are long containing complex clauses.
IDEAS	Ideas include fewer abstract thoughts.	Ideas include several abstract thoughts (pressure groups, accidental happenings).
APPROACH	The approach is personal, active and less negative.	The approach is personal, active as well as negative (whether or not).

QUALITY OF WORKLIFE: ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS SPEAK-OUT

E. Marie McKee & Peter J. Murphy

> A powerful tide is surging across much of the world today, creating a new, often bizarre, environment in which to work, play, marry, raise children, or retire. In this bewildering context, businessmen swim against highly erratic economic currents; politicians see their ratings bob wildly up and down: universities, hospitals and other institutions battle desperately against inflation. Value systems splinter and crash, while the lifeboats of family, church and state are hurled madly about. (Toffler, 1980, p. 25)

Introduction

The last quarter of the twentieth century is characterized by continuous change which is altering many facets of our lives. In most industrialized states, many occupations have disappeared along with the extended family and traditional social conventions. People seem more inclined toward a 'work to live' than a 'live to work' philosophy. (Kratzmann, Byrne & Worth, 1980, p. 9) The future is unknown and uncertain. Therefore, people are more concerned with the here and now rather than tomorrow.

The present 'me-generation', a title which Wolfe (1976) has assigned to adults in the eighties, is an outcome of a movement which began in the sixties when many of these adults were in college and school. During the sixties, education changed from being a subject oriented activity to being one which focussed on the individual. In Canada, the Hall-Dennis Report (1968), entitled Living and Learning, served as a base for a new progressivism in education. Individualized instruction, non-gradedness and continuous progress became the order of the day in most schools. Curricula had to accordingly change which resulted in traditional subjects such as history and mathematics being replaced by more general areas of study.

Though there has been a swing back to a more subject centred curriculum, the needs of individuals are still given considerable attention. Even in the

the present economic climate, special programmes for the gifted, the slow learning and the handicapped child continue to be funded. Individuals of all ages in our contemporary society place great emphasis on freedom of expression, self discovery and personal growth. (Kratzmann, Byrne & Worth, 1980, p. 9) Also, through a multitude of activities individuals endeavour to attain a much higher level of self-actualization than either their parents or grandparents. As a consequence of this desire for greater personal fulfillment, many people are beginning to examine critically how they feel about their work. For most individuals at least one third of every day is devoted to some activity associated with their employment. Therefore, it is natural for them to be interested in the quality of their worklife.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon which we have yet to fully understand. Many deficiencies have been proposed by researchers to describe how the people they were studying felt about the quality of their worklife. Generally, these definitions have reported job satisfaction in affective or behavioural terms. (Holdaway, 1978, p. 5) Also, job satisfaction has been viewed as a unitary concept (overall job satisfaction) and as a multi-dimensional concept (satisfaction with specific work items). Early investigation (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) assumed that job satisfaction and worker productivity were closely related. However, research has not proved this assumption to be true. (Brayfield & Roth, 1951; Vroom, 1964; Lawler & Porter, 1967) Most recent studies have examined the determinants of job satisfaction since outcomes are difficult to assess.

The theoretical frameworks which have been established to explain job satisfaction can be classified into three categories, namely:

(1) subjective frameworks
(2) intrinsic frameworks
(3) interactionist frameworks

All these frameworks have a common limitation of viewing satisfaction from a specific perspective. Consequently, the dynamic nature of the phenomenon cannot be adequately explained.

Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory is typical of the conceptual models considered to be subjective frameworks. The determinants of job satisfaction are assumed to be related to the fulfillment of an individual's needs. The five need levels proposed by Maslow are: physiological, security, social, esteem and self-actualization. The findings of need deficiency studies suggest that esteem is the most powerful motivator for today's teachers. (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1974, p. 63) The highest level of satisfaction according to this theory, is attained from satisfaction of the need for self-actualization. Porter et al (1975) has suggested that lower level needs (physiological, security, social) must be satisfied before higher level needs (esteem, self-actualization) are given consideration.

The models classified as intrinsic frameworks consider the determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction to exist within the work completed by an individual. The most well known of the intrinsic frameworks is Herzberg's (1973) two-factor theory of job satisfaction which relates satisfaction with motivators (achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement) and hygiene factors (administration, interpersonal relations, salary working conditions, status, security). Herzberg maintained that the factors which contributed to satisfaction were different from those which contributed to dissatisfaction. Consequently, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are viewed as being completely different phenomena.

The two-factor theory has generated a considerable amount of empirical research over the last two decades. Concerns have been expressed regarding the appropriateness of the theory in occupational areas other than those where it was intially used to study job satisfaction. A number of researchers question whether the situational factors classified as motivators and hygiene factors are mutually exclusive.

The interactionist frameworks view job satisfaction as a complex interplay between the worker and his job situation. (Holdaway, 1978, p. 7). Both the characteristics of the individual and the nature work environment are considered to jointly determine job satisfaction. One of the most sophisticated models in this category is Vrooms (1964) valency concept which links a person's goals to those of an organization. Another model which has been used extensively is Locke's (1969) goal setting theory which employs a discrepancy approach to explain job satisfaction. According to Locke job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering". (p. 316) This interactionist framework served as the concept base for the investigation described in this report.

The Study

Since the early seventies, a number of job satisfaction studies have been undertaken in Canada to discover whether teachers and principals are satisfied with their work. Typical of these investigations was a study undertaken by Wickstrom (1973) designed to identify the most significant determinants of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among public elementary and secondary teachers in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. He discovered that the most important satisfiers were a sense of achievement, the work itself, good interpersonal relationships and responsibility. The major sources of dissatisfaction identified by the respondents were lack of achievement, poor school policy and administration, unfavourable working conditions and adverse effect of the job on one's personal life. (Holdaway, 1978, p. 16) As Sergiovanni and Carver (1974, p. 63) note teachers need to feel important as persons and as recognized, respected and competent professionals.

The professional literature on job satisfaction and adult education revealed that investigations on the job satisfaction experienced by adult educators were scarce in Canada. Furthermore, no studies could be found which had invited adult education administrators in British Columbia to comment on how they felt about their work. Yet, these educational leaders influence how many institutions respond to the changing demands for adult education produced by our ever changing contemporary society. The investigation described in this report was designed to discover the extent to which adult education administrators in British Columbia were satisfied with the quality of their worklife. The relationship of overall satisfaction to satisfaction with specific work items was studied.

Research Procedure

The Province of British Columbia occupies an area of 366,255 square miles. Topography, as one might expect, is as varied as the geography is expansive. (McDonald, 1966, p. 6) Scattered throughout the region are numerous school districts and community colleges which provide urban, semi-urban and rural communities with a variety of adult education services and programmes. The adult education administrators in these institutions were the focus of this investigation.

Members of the British Columbia Association of Continuing Education Administrators were selected as the sample for the study. This Association, according to informed scholars and government officials, serves as a professional organization for most adult education administrators in the province. Therefore, it was assumed that the members of the association would be a representative sample of the population surveyed.

A multiple-choice questionnaire was mailed to 130 members of the association in late August, 1982. Follow-up letters encouraging members to participate in the investigation were mailed in September, 1982. Seventy-nine administrators returned the questionnaire which represents a 61 percent rate of return. However, seven respondents, who did not answer all the items, were excluded from the investigation. As a consequence of this action the responses of 72 administrators were analyzed. This group represented 55 percent of the sample invited to participate in the study.

The questionnaire used to obtain adult education administrators perceptions of the quality of their worklife was based on empirical investigations undertaken by Holdaway (1978), Rice (1979) and Haughey and Murphy (1982). The first part of the questionnaire asked respondents to provide data on their personal attributes and professional life. Items concerned with the institutional setting and student population were included in the second part of the instrument.

The third part of the questionnaire asked the administrators to comment on their overall level of satisfaction with their present position and to comment on their satisfaction with 49 work items. The work items were classified into six categories to assist respondents in making their assessments and to facilitate analysis. The respondents were provided with a six point scale, ranging from six (highly satisfied) to one (highly dissatisfied) for this evaluation. At the end of the questionnaire space was made available for respondents to identify the two factors which contributed most to their overall satisfaction and the two factors which contributed most to their overall dissatisfaction.

The data were summarized, tabulated and coded for analysis in the computer. Frequency and percentage distributions were established for all the work items and the respondents overall satisfaction with the quality of their worklife was determined. The administrators were considered to be reasonably satisfied with a work item if they were moderately or highly satisfied. Lower assessments were viewed as expressing some degree of dissatisfaction with an item.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between the level of overall satisfaction expressed by the administrators and the satisfaction with each work item. These coefficients were tabulated and compared. A factor analysis was undertaken using the varimax rotation method.

Findings

Overall satisfaction. Ninety-five percent of the adult education administrators, as shown in Table 1, were moderately or highly satisfied with their jobs. The respondents appeared to be reasonably satisfied with the general quality of their worklife. This finding was unexpected since adult educators in British Columbia have been recently experiencing the consequences of fiscal contraction. Though the administrators were satisfied with their worklife as a totality, further analysis revealed they were somewhat dissatisfied with particular aspects of their jobs.

Working conditions. Items associated with working conditions were sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for the administrators. The majority of respondents appeared to be reasonably satisfied with their salary, pension benefits, provisions for sick leave, and physical working conditions. Some dissatisfaction appeared to be generated, however, by provisions for sabbatical leave, procedures for determining salaries, consultation concerning working conditions, number of hours an administrator is expected to work, and opportunities for professional development (see Table 1). The work item in this category which generated the greatest dissatisfaction was provisions for sabbatical leave. Thirty percent of the respondents indicated that they were highly dissatisfied with this aspect of their worklife.

Personnel related matters. The administrators appeared very satisfied with personnel matters. The only item which caused them any degree of dissatisfaction was the formal evaluation of instructors. According to the respondents a high collegial relationship existed between management and teaching staff in adult education (see Table 2).

Student related matters. The administrators, according to the data presented in Table 3, were similarly satisfied with work items involving students. The only issue in this aspect of their worklife which caused some respondents concern was the availability of student counselling services. The provision of counselling services for part-time students has been a source of dissatisfaction for adult educators for many years. There appears to be still need for substantial improvements in this area.

Department related matters. The data presented in Table 4 suggests that the administrators were generally satisfied with departmental matters. None of the work items in this category seemed to generate a significant amount of concern.

Institutional related matters. The data gathered indicated that institutional matters were the source of greatest dissatisfaction for the administrators. The work items which caused many respondents concern were the adequacy of library resources for part-time students, availability of useful advice for resolving problems, opportunities for in-service, policy implementation and evaluation of administrators. The supervisory practices employed by senior executives and policy implementation procedures were identified by 40 percent of the administrators as needing to be improved. In contrast, the majority of respondents were reasonably satisfied with their accountability for the success of programmes, professional relationships with senior executives, and the executives expectations of them as administrators (see Table 5).

The adult education administrators appeared generally satisfied with the professional relationships with senior executives. One aspect of these relationships appeared to be generating concern for a substantial number of the administrators. This group noted that they were dissatisfied with existing supervisory practices. This issue should be investigated further since the adult education administrators will be encountering an increasing number of problems in the future for which they will be seeking assistance to resolve. The advice and assistance they require must be forthcoming if they are to effectively perform their duties.

Occupation related matters. The administrators seemed reasonably satisfied with the occupation dimension of their worklife. The effect of the job on their personal or family life was the only item which was reported to generate any level of dissatisfaction. A third of the respondents, as shown in Table 6, expressed some concern about the impact their job was having on their personal life. These findings contrast sharply with those reported by Haughey and Murphy (1982) for rural teachers in British Columbia. Many of the rural teachers indicated that they were dissatisfied with the status of teachers in society, the attitude of society towards education, and the attitude of parents towards education. The public esteem and public affiliations of rural teachers seemed to be a lower standard than the respondents preferred.

Pearson product-moment-correlation coefficients. By statistical analysis Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were derived the rural teachers' level of overall satisfaction and their responses to each of the work items. The highest correlation coefficients were associated with institutional related matters, concerning professional esteem and professional autonomy, namely: (1) "Involvement in decision-making in your institution" (0.50); (2) "Expectations of the institution for you as an administrator" (0.50); (3) "Freedom to seek out new ideas and introduce them into institutional programmes" (0.46); (4) "Expectations of the institution's executive officer for you as an administrator" (0.45); and (5) "The authority associated with your administrative position" (0.45). The adult education administrators appear to possess the characteristics which Sergiovanni and Carver (1974) reported to be common to success seekers. These type of individuals according to these scholars continually seek activities which will develop their competence.

Work items with the lowest correlation coefficients were: (1) "Adequacy of library resources for full-time students" (0.13); (2) "Recognition by members of the community of your work" (0.14); (3) "Amount of recognition you receive from members of other professions" (0.17); (4) "Availability of facilities in your community for recreation, fine arts, etc." (0.18); (5) "Attitude of your staff towards curriculum change" (0.18); and (6) "Provisions for sabbatical leave" (0.18). The overall level of satisfaction of adult education administrators appears to be least affected by the occupation dimension. Again, this finding contrasts sharply with the findings reported by Haughey and Murphy (1982) for rural teachers. The job satisfaction experienced by rural teachers was substantially affected by occupation items.

Comment

The investigation discussed in this report seems to indicate that adult education administrators in British Columbia, Canada, are reasonably satisfied with the quality of their worklife. Analysis suggests that many of these administrators are success seekers, individuals who endeavour to improve their competence and seek activities for expressing their autonomy and for achieving a high level of self actualization.

The main sources of dissatisfaction reported by administrators appear to be work items associated with working conditions and institutional related matters. The anxiety generated by many of these work items, such as procedures for determining salaries, consultation concerning working conditions, availability of useful advice for resolving problems and policy implementation, could be substantially decreased by providing the administrators with greater opportunity to participate in planning, policy-making and finance issues. The administrators have been shown to possess characteristics common to success seekers, individuals who have a high need level for directing the future destiny of the institutions they serve. Therefore, involving them more extensively in institutional decision-making would have a significant impact on the quality of their worklife.

Provisions for sabbatical leave, opportunities for professional development and opportunities for useful in-service education for adult education administrators, according to the respondents, need to be improved. Our complex technological society is generating a multitude of unique problems for institutions of higher education, public schools and social agencies. The respondents recognize that they need access to high quality professional learning experiences if they are to cope effectively with issues which have an adult education component. This need deficiency could be partially satisfied by new professional development experiences for adult educators being offered by the Knowledge Network of the West. (Roach, 1981)

The most significant finding of this investigation was that the majority of the administrators were reasonably satisfied with the quality of their worklife. Over the past eighteen months, educational institutions in British Columbia have been subjected to severe fiscal constraints which have had far reaching implications for personnel management, programme development and facilities planning. Adult education departments, by virtue of the programmes they offer and the students they serve, were the first sectors of educational institutions to experience the consequences of diminishing resources. The fact that adult education administrators continue to experience, under extremely adverse conditions, a high level of job satisfaction reflects a commitment to adult education, a resilience to adversity and a competence to manage contraction.

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Table 1

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH WORKING CONDITIONS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Your overall satisfaction with your job.	23	38	41	57	1	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	1	1
Salary you receive.	24	33	22	31	19	14	7	10	1	1	8	11	0	0
Pension benefits	20	28	21	29	13	18	7	10	3	4	4	6	4	5
Provisions for sabbatical leave.	13	18	9	13	9	13	6	8	6	8	22	30	7	10
Provisions for sick leave.	31	43	22	31	9	12	1	1	3	4	2	3	4	6
The way in which salaries and fringe benefits are determined.	13	18	20	28	6	8	11	15	8	11	9	13	6	7
The way in which consultation concerning working conditions is conducted during the year.	13	18	19	26	14	20	5	7	10	14	8	11	3	4
Provision for travel related to professional activities.	23	32	17	23	13	18	8	11	7	10	4	6	0	0
The number of hours an administrator is expected to work.	14	19	18	25	12	17	14	19	7	10	5	7	2	3
Your physical working conditions.	21	29	25	35	11	15	9	13	5	7	1	1	0	0
The portion of time you devote to operational duties.	8	11	22	31	18	25	14	19	6	8	2	3	2	3
Opportunities for professional development.	13	18	23	32	11	15	10	14	8	11	7	10	0	0

N=72

Table 2

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH PERSONNEL RELATED MATTERS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Your relationships with instructors.	36	30	29	40	2	3	2	3	1	1	0	0	2	3
The willingness of instructors to adopt your administrator-initiated innovations.	27	37	37	51	4	6	2	3	0	0	0	0	2	3
The competence of your staff in coping with day-to-day problems.	32	44	29	40	7	10	2	3	0	0	0	0	2	3
The opportunity to help instructors solve their professional problems.	10	14	32	45	24	33	1	1	3	4	0	0	2	3
Formal evaluation of instructors.	6	8	24	33	10	14	18	25	9	13	2	3	3	4
Your freedom to seek out new ideas and introduce them into institutional programmes.	34	47	23	32	8	11	3	4	2	3	0	0	2	3
Hiring procedures.	24	33	21	29	12	17	7	10	2	3	1	1	5	7

N=72

Table 3

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH STUDENT RELATED MATTERS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
General attitude of students toward staff.	16	22	44	61	5	7	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	9
Your freedom to organize special provisions for students' individual differences.	17	24	29	40	10	14	6	8	4	6	1	1	5	7
Availability of counselling services.	11	15	19	27	15	21	11	15	6	8	6	3	4	6
Support from other institutional resources (i.e. admissions, learning assistance, etc.)	15	21	23	32	10	14	7	10	8	11	3	4	6	8
Methods used in reporting students' achievements.	12	17	24	33	18	25	3	4	4	6	0	0	11	15

N=72

Table 4

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH DEPARTMENT RELATED MATTERS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Your freedom to allocate teaching assignments.	30	42	24	33	6	9	2	3	1	1	1	1	8	11
Responsibility associated with your administrative position.	26	36	34	47	6	9	3	4	0	0	1	1	2	3
The consequences of participative staff decisions.	22	31	28	39	14	19	3	4	0	0	2	3	3	4
The attitudes of your staff towards curriculum change.	21	29	31	43	12	17	0	0	1	1	0	0	7	10

N=72

Table 5

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH INSTITUTIONAL RELATED MATTERS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Your authority over budget preparation.	16	22	17	24	15	21	6	8	9	13	8	11	1	1
Your accountability for the success of programs.	24	34	30	42	16	22	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Availability of clerical personnel to assist you.	19	27	18	25	14	20	8	11	6	8	6	8	1	1
Adequacy of library resources for full-time students.	17	24	19	26	7	10	6	8	6	8	3	4	14	20
Adequacy of library resources for part-time students.	13	18	18	25	11	15	10	14	11	15	5	7	4	6
Your professional relationship with senior administration.	27	38	32	44	4	6	6	9	1	1	1	1	1	1
Your involvement in decision-making in your institution.	13	18	24	33	15	21	11	15	4	6	3	4	2	3
Availability of useful advice to assist you with problems you encounter.	17	3	17	24	20	24	11	27	5	15	0	7	2	3
Opportunities for useful in-service education for you.	11	15	21	30	16	22	10	14	7	10	6	8	1	1
Expectations of the institution for you as an administrator.	14	19	21	29	19	27	10	14	4	6	1	1	3	4
Expectations of the institution's executive officer for you as an administrator.	16	22	25	35	15	21	7	10	2	2	0	0	7	10
The way policies of the institution are put into practice.	10	14	19	26	10	14	21	29	4	6	5	7	3	4
Evaluation of administrators.	8	11	18	25	20	28	11	15	7	10	5	7	3	4

N=72

Table 6

ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS' SATISFACTION WITH OCCUPATION RELATED MATTERS

Work Item	Highly Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Slightly Dissatisfied		Moderately Dissatisfied		Highly Dissatisfied		No Response	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Attitudes of people in your community towards education.	14	20	29	40	24	34	3	4	1	1	0	0	1	1
Your sense of accomplishment as an administrator.	20	27	38	53	12	17	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recognition by members of the community of your work.	15	21	32	44	17	23	4	6	2	3	0	0	2	3
Your social position in the community.	18	25	36	50	12	16	2	3	0	0	0	0	4	6
The amount of recognition you receive from members of other professions.	14	19	28	39	19	26	4	6	0	0	4	4	4	6
The variety of tasks you work on as part of your regular duties.	24	33	30	42	13	18	4	6	0	0	1	1	0	0
The authority associated with your administrative position.	24	33	30	42	8	11	4	6	2	3	3	4	1	1
The effect of the job on your personal or family life.	11	15	22	31	13	18	13	18	6	8	5	7	2	3
Availability of facilities in your community for recreation, fine arts, etc.	28	39	17	24	9	12	8	11	6	8	2	3	2	3

N=72

THE PROBLEM OF JOURNAL SEARCHING; THE CASE OF RETRIEVING ADULT EDUCATION EVALUATION ARTICLES.

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Problem Statement

Adult educators often have considerable difficulty identifying the articles relevant to their particular subject of interest. This is especially true for the practitioner who does not search frequently in professional journals for articles of substance. The problem is not only one of knowing which journals contain articles in adult education, but also one of deciding what the contents of a particular article might be on the basis of the words in the title. The problem of knowing the meaning of words frequently used by researchers and other professionals is aggravated by the lack of consistency in usage of adult education terminology. This is not a new problem for educators. Goodman observed in 1972 that:

> Education does not now appear to be characterized by a singular profession, a singular discipline, or monolithic institutions. Pluralism is the order of the day. Professional organizations proliferate; adherents of one discipline after another appear and argue the advantages of a particular approach, the attractiveness of a different conceptual framework; institutions which until recently seemed quite venerable are attacked from all sides. (Goodman, 1972)

The words of a title to an adult education article are the keys provided by the author to prospective readers summarizing the ideas and experiences contained in the body of the paper. The title serves as a primary retrieval system which allows for information collected and articulated in writing by one person to be retrieved by another. Descriptor terms are the keys created by document cataloguers in order to provide for an alternative retrieval system in the information gathering process. The current state of the art of the profession of adult education is reflected in the vocabulary created by both authors and cataloguers.

There are basically two approaches to information retrieval: through the examination of title words, and through the searching for concepts in appropriate thesauri of descriptor terms. Each approach attempts to provide searchers with sufficient information to permit a decision to be made as to the relevance of the particular document. A disadvantage in title word searching is that the key words provided are either insufficient to make a judgement or are so creatively innovative as to be inconclusive. On the other hand, a disadvantage in descriptor searching is that key terms used attempt to categorize a particular article within the conventions set down by an institutional authority. This often does not allow for the dynamic developments taking place within the field of inquiry. Again, Goodman observed:

> A great many terms are necessary to describe the many aspects of education, and the task of relating them

> in even an approximately consistent way is an enormous one. The undertaking should be managed by people who not only know what they are talking about but who also should be able to predict what people in their field are likely to be talking about in the near future. It should also enlist people who are willing to pay a great deal of attention to the details of relating one term to another within the system. (Goodman, 1972)

A second disadvantage in descriptor searching is that the practitioner, unlike the researcher, is generally unfamiliar with the several thesauri available in reference collections.

An analysis of title words and descriptor terms found in recent adult education evaluation articles will assist practitioners in their quest for information.

Literature

The basic references for adult educators seeking a relevant professional vocabulary are:

The Encyclopedia of Education
Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors
Thesaurus of Development Communications
OECD Macrothesaurus: Economic and Social Development
MSU Non-formal Education Thesaurus

In addition to these there are several subject heading indices based upon the Library of Congress or Dewey cataloguing system.

These thesauri build their literature search strategies on artificially controlled words categorized as broad (BT), narrow (NT) and related (RT) terms, as well as alphabetized rotated listings.

The OECD Macrothesaurus provides a guide to broad and narrow terms used in the social sciences, including education, but due to the wide scope of its topics does not allow for much specificity in searching for a subject as narrow as "adult education evaluation." Indeed, the only descriptive narrow terms that were useful in searching were "methods," "techniques," "evaluation," "research," and "analysis" when cross-referenced with "adult education."

When using the ERIC Thesaurus a wider variety of narrow terms were available as suggested search words. These included 23 techniques of analysis, 3 of evaluation, 3 of assessment, 2 of research and 4 of surveying. (See Table 7.)

All the thesauri reviewed relied heavily on the use of a non-educational subject descriptor to reduce the search field.

While there is considerable literature dealing with the structure and procedures used in creating thesauri of descriptors "very little is known about the people who have been using the ERIC Thesaurus, why and how they have been using it, and what they think of it." (Goodman, 1972)

During the past several months students in the Department of Adult Education at St. Francis Xavier University have been searching for articles relevant to the profession. Close to 3000 articles were identified in 73 journals published in 1981 and 1982. The articles were catalogued on an HP3000-300 computer using the MINISIS information management system. The inverted file capability of the system allows for both title and descriptor search strategies.

The Department's database is used by students, researchers and practitioners alike as the source of written information on the theory and practice of adult education. Students with sufficient available time, and researchers with considerable knowledge have little difficulty in retrieving information on their particular topic. Practitioners, on the other hand, with less time to search and virtually no knowledge of the variety of synonomous terms have considerable difficulty in accessing the literature. Goodman has noted that:

> One of the major questions to be answered about Thesaurus use is the extent to which it may be utilized to aid the kind of search performed by a professional searcher acting as an intermediary between the actual user and the system. It may be that a great many future searches of the system will involve an intermediary person. This possibility should not be viewed simply as an aid to the user; it should also be viewed as a potentially inevitable barrier between the user and the system. In the

> first instance one can contemplate a highly valuable interface between a naive user and the complex system, an interface in the form of a searcher who translates between the user's natural language and the system's artificially controlled language. (Goodman, 1972)

An alternative to the growing mystification of the professional language of adult education is the development of easy to use search strategies that can be applied to the words of the title in such a way as to provide ready access to relevant information. Adult education has traditionally been characterized by its practical approach to learning, consequently any effort to demystify the profession is to be valued.

Objectives of Study

This study examines the problem of determining the appropriateness of title words as guides to the selection of articles written on the topic of adult education evaluation. It suggests to practitioners ways of approaching the problem of literature search and to authors ways of titling their work so as to make it readily accessible.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify relevant adult education journals with articles on evaluation;

2. To identify relevant evaluation words;

3. To categorize words of a title according to their function;

4. To analyze evaluation method, technique and instrument words;

5. To suggest appropriate title search strategy for the topic of evaluation; and

6. To suggest appropriate title writing criteria.

Definitions

1. Evaluation: the determining, or setting, of value;

2. Function: the purpose for which something is designed or exits;

3. Instrument: a device for measuring the present value of the quantity under observation [synonym: tool];

4. Method: a plan or system of action, inquiry, analysis, etc.

5. Research: systematic inquiry into a subject in order to discover or revise facts, theories, etc.;

6. Search: to explore or examine in order to discover;

7. Tecnnique: the body of specialized procedures used in any specific field.

Methodology

The methodology used to identify relevant articles and words was developmental.

1. Journals in the social sciences were searched to render articles in adult education;

2. A cluster of words suggesting that the article was related to evaluation were identified;

3. Article abstracts were reviewed to determine suitability;

4. Evaluation title words were categorized as to function: "what," "who," "why," "where," "when" and "how;"

5. "Why" evaluation words were categorize as guides to methodology, practice and current issues;

6. "How" evaluation words were categorized as to methods, techniques, and instruments;

7. A microthesaurus of evaluation related words was prepared.

Findings and Discussion

The findings have been placed in tables at the end of the paper. The following discussion attempts to highlight certain features of the data.

1. Journals with articles in adult education evaluation. (See Table 1.)

Seventy three journals containing 2977 adult education articles published in 1981-82 were searched; 51 contained 324 evaluation articles; DEVSIS contained 101; ERIC was unavailable for searching on the informational retrieval system at the time of the study. Journals with the largest number of "hits" on evaluation were those related either to community development or to human resources training. Journals in general education and in the social sciences containing adult education evaluation articles were few.

2. Evaluation words used to suggest method. (See Table 2.)

Eleven words were considered to be synonymous with evaluation; 5 words were most frequently (88%) used to suggest that the article was referring to evaluation; the 6 other words appeared less frequently (12%). Although the word "research" appeared in 25% of the titles it was redundant with another evaluation word in 20% of the references. The distribution of title words between the "analysis" of human performance (43%) and the "evaluation" of programs (57%) was a very interesting finding.

3. Function words in titles. (See Table 3.)

"What" kind of evaluation took place and "how" it was conducted appeared frequently, "who" and "where" less frequently, while "why" and "when" were seldom manifested in the title.

Using the "why" function to mean "why write a report" made it a useful approach for identifying (77%) guides to methodology, practice and current issues.

The use of "who" and "where" words, although limited (38%), provided a context to the article in question. The designation of people of a class or type ("who") clearly limited the study to a target population which was readily defineable. Title words designating "where" the evaluation took place often was a substitute to "who" serving the same purpose of targeting the population being evaluated.

"When" the evaluation took place was generally absent from the title.

4. Title words suggesting methodology, practice and issues. (See Table 4.)

Title words often, but not always (77%), gave the reason why the article was written.

Words suggesting that the article focuses on how to conduct an evaluation were varied. Twenty two different words pointed to articles on methodology (44%). Words such as "approach," "strategy" and "system" referred to general articles on methods while words such as "techniques," "levels," "steps" and "tactics" usually referred to the specifics of evaluation procedure.

The practice of evaluation is generally referred to in the title (20%) when such words as "report", "project", and "program" appear. There are only a few evaluation reports found in journals. The DEVSIS and ERIC information systems are more frequently the repository of reports.

Current issues in evaluation were infrequently (13%) suggested by words in the title. Words such as "roles", "problems", "concepts", "policies" and "issues" pointed to articles which discussed the current state of evaluation.

5. Title words suggesting quantitative, qualitative, participatory, formative and summative evaluation techniques. (See Table 5.)

Evaluation titles were required to include one of the eleven method words in order to be considered in this study. In addition to one of these general words the titles also included a second word which suggested a particular approach, or technique, being used in evaluation. The words describing technique divided into "quantitative," "qualitative," "participatory," "formative" and "summative" evaluation approaches. There was, however, considerable overlapping in approach between qualitative and participatory as well as between formative and summative techniques.

6. Title words suggesting evaluation instruments. (See Table 6.)

An evaluation title often had an alternative second word suggesting an instrument (36%). Words such as "survey" and "test" were used so frequently that they often stood alone in a title to suggest a method in themselves.

7. A micro-thesaurus of evaluation related words. (See Table 7.)

One hundred and forty-one words were identified from titles and/or thesauri that suggested some aspect -- method, technique or instrument -- of evaluation. Of the total, 29 were terms drawn from the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors. Only two of the ERIC terms were found in the titles searched !

Conclusions

1. Apart from those journals whose purpose it is to disseminate evaluation research there are numerous other serials which publish evaluation information occasionally. Collectively, these latter journals offer the reader half of the total number of references on the subject.

The International Development Research Centre's DEVSIS collection and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education provide the major resources for reports on the practice, issues and methods used in evaluation.

2. Identification of appropriate articles by using key evaluation words in a title is a valuable strategy to follow when searching for information.

3. The selection of function words in a title is a useful strategy for identifying the "what", "how", and "who/where" of the evaluation. It is also useful in determining the purpose, "why", of the article. It was not useful in identifying the "when" of an evaluation.

4. A thesaurus of descriptors is a helpful support when searching for articles which have been incompletely or inappropriately titled, however, it is not as useful as the solitary source of searching words.

Recommendations

The recommendations resulting from this study are directed primarily to the practitioner who is searching for relevant articles and to authors who want to make their work more accessible.

1. The adult educator seeking to identify appropriate evaluation articles without the aid of computer searching facilities would do best to review journals in community development, adult education and human resources training, and use the nine title key evaluation words as a guide to selection.

2. The adult educator with access to searching facilities should enter the activity with a sense of exploration. The process of selection becomes, in itself, a vocabulary learning experience. The first selection of titles will probably be inadequate, and successive passes at the database will gradually render the information being sought.

3. A search strategy to follow should be to select the broadest terms that seem appropriate to the topic and try to identify 300 to 500 "hits". The mini-database so created should then be cross-referenced according to the guide words suggested for each of the six function categories. The sets of titles by category

should render between 10 and 20 hits each; these then can be perused. When perusing a set of "hits" the secondary adjective words which describe, or modify, the primary evaluation words should be the focus of the search. Eventually, the articles appropriate to the interest of the adult educator will emerge. One hour is not an uncommon length of time to spend searching for 15 to 30 articles of interest.

4. The authors of journal articles should consider that the title is the primary resource that an adult educator has for retrieving the contents of their work. Although clever or creative titles are attractive to an "in group" of readers who are current knowledge of the trends and authors found in particular journals, such titles generally exclude the casual reader. The title should be written in plain English.

5. Authors should include a combination of words in the title which tell the prospective reader what is being evaluated, how it is being evaluated and why it is being evaluated. Other function words should be included when the target population, or the location, or the time are the principle subject being evaluated.

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TABLE ONE:
JOURNALS WITH ARTICLES IN ADULT EDUCATION EVALUATION
1981 - 1982

	Adult Ed.	Eval- uation
ADULT EDUCATION	47	14
ADULT EDUCATION (GREAT BRITAIN)	34	2
ADULT EDUCATION (UNESCO)	-	-
ADULT EDUCATION (UNITED STATES)	27	9
ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT	14	2
ADULT EDUCATION IN FINLAND	-	-
ALBERTA JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH	4	2
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY	1	0
AUSTRALIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION	27	1
BRITISH JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY	3	0
BRITISH JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES	1	0
BRITISH JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY	1	0
CANADIAN ADMINISTRATOR	2	1
CANADIAN COUNSELLOR	13	0
CANADIAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION	6	0
CANADIAN JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION	7	1
CANADIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY	3	1
CHANGE: MAGAZINE OF HIGHER LEARNING	20	3
CLEARING HOUSE	3	0
COMMUNITY COLLEGE REVIEW	8	2
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT JOURNAL	327	24
COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW	8	3
CONTACT	67	3
CONVERGENCE	119	12
COUNSELLING AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT	4	1
CTM: THE HUMAN ELEMENT	4	1
DELTA PI EPSILON	5	1
DEVELOPMENT DIALOGUE	95	7
DEVELOPMENT DIGEST	88	13
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND CULTURE CHANGE	149	19
EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF MENTALLY RETARDED	1	0
EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATION AND TECHNOLOGY	86	20
EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH	65	10
EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY	119	20
EDUCATIONAL THEORY	15	3
EVALUATION U. S. REVIEW	7	7
GROUP AND ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES	72	12
HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW	11	3
HUMAN RELATIONS (UNITED STATES)	68	12
INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION	6	0
INFOSYSTEMS	4	0
INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT REVIEW	408	16
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS	77	15
INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION	3	1
JOURNAL OF CURRICULUM STUDIES	5	1
JOURNAL OF CURRICULUM THEORIZING	9	1
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION	3	0

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT	6	1
JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH	19	5
JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT	3	0
JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL EDUCATION	4	0
JOURNAL OF EXTENSION	10	0
JOURNAL OF HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY	48	3
JOURNAL OF READING	7	2
JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES	7	3
JOURNAL OF SPECIAL EDUCATION	3	1
JOURNAL OF THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT SOCIETY	10	2
LIFELONG LEARNING (ADULT LEADERSHIP)	56	3
MCGILL JOURNAL OF EDUCATION	2	0
MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION IN GUIDANCE	3	3
PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION	5	3
PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL	11	0
PHI DELTA KAPPAN	8	0
PROGRAMMED LEARNING AND EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY	99	15
RESEARCH IN HIGHER EDUCATION	5	0
REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH	7	4
SOCIAL ACTION	265	32
TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD	21	0
TEACHING AT A DISTANCE	6	1
THEORY INTO PRACTICE	0	0
THIRD WORLD QUARTERLY	495	32
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT JOURNAL	301	32
TRAINING: HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT	35	2

TABLE TWO: EVALUATION WORDS SUGGESTING METHOD CROSS-REFERENCED WITH HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND PROGRAMMING

	HUMAN BEHAVIOR	PROGRAM PRE-	POST-	TOTAL	%
JUDGEMENT	4*	0	0	4	+
APPRAISAL	5	0	1	6	+
MEASUREMENT	6	0	2	8	+
OBSERVATION	8	0	0	8	+
SURVEY	2	10	0	12	+
TEST	13	9	7	29	12%
ASSESSMENT	24	20	12	56	9%
EVALUATION	20	28	53	101	17%
CASE STUDY	27	0	80	107	18%
ANALYSIS	77	17	20	114	19%
RESEARCH	75	20	54	149	25%
	(261)	(104)	(229)	(594)	
	43%	57%			(100%)

TABLE THREE:
FUNCTION WORDS IN TITLES

"Who" was being evaluated:	
People of a type or class	20%
"What" was being evaluated:	
Human behavior	43%
Program planning	19%
Program outcome	38%
	(100%)
What learning content was being evaluated:	
ABE, literacy, life skills	2%
Vocational, economic development	6%
Social welfare, human services	2%
Health, nutrition, fitness	2%
Culture, art, folklore, religion	1%
	(13%)
"Why" report on evaluation:	
Guides to method	44%
Current issues	13%
Practice	20%
	(77%)
"When" the evaluation took place	3%
"Where" the evaluation took place	
In a learning environment	10%
Informal 2%	
Non-formal 3%	
Skill training 4%	
Formal 1%	
In an organization	8%
In a community	8%
In a geographic locale	2%
	(28%)
"How" was the evaluation carried out:	
Method	100%
Technique	34%
Instrument	36%

TABLE FOUR:
GUIDE WORDS SUGGESTING METHODOLOGY, PRACTICE AND ISSUES.

Methodology					
ELEMENTS	2*	DECISION	7	MODELS	18
KIT	2	DESIGN	7	DESIGN	22
SCHEME	2	FRAMEWORK	8	GUIDE	27
PROCEDURES	3	HANDBOOK	10	PRACTICE	27
TACTICS	4	FORM	11	SYSTEM	28
STEPS	5	HOW	12	TECHNIQUES	33
LEVELS	6	PROCESS	14	STRATEGY	36
				APPROACH	40
Practice					
OUTCOME	2	SUMMARY	10	PROJECT	47
PRODUCT	9	REPORT	30	PROGRAM	105
Issues					
VIEWPOINT	1	CHALLENGES	3	ISSUES	10
PRIORITIES	2	PRINCIPLES	4	POLICIES	12
PROFILE	2	TRENDS	5	CONCEPTS	13
TERMS	2	DEFINITIONS	9	PROBLEMS	17
				ROLES	20

*Frequency count.

TABLE FIVE:
WORDS SUGGESTING QUANTITATIVE, QUALITATIVE, PARTICIPATORY, FORMATIVE AND SUMMATIVE TECHNIQUES.

Quantitative Techniques		
BASIC CENSUS COMPETENCY COST- CRITERION- DIFFERENTIAL EFFICIENT EMPIRICAL	EXPERIMENTAL FACTOR ITEM LONGITUDINAL NOMINAL OBJECTIVE OPTIMAL PATTERN	POOLED PURE QUANTITATIVE RATING RESPONSE SAMPLE SYSTEMATIC TREATMENT
Qualitative Technique		
ATTITUDE COMPARATIVE CONDITIONAL CONTEXT	EFFECTIVE EXPERIMENTAL FIRST-HAND MULTI-DIMENSIONAL	MULTI-LEVEL OPTIMAL PRACTICAL QUALITATIVE SIMULATION
Participatory Technique		
COMMUNITY CUSTOMIZED DELPHI	GROUP INTERACTION INTERVENTION	PARTICIPATORY SELF- TRANSACTIONAL
Formative Technique		
ANTECEDENT ANTICIPATORY BACKGROUND CONTINGENCY CONTINUING DAILY DEVELOPMENTAL	ESTIMATION FRONT-END GIFT-HORSE INTRODUCTORY MONITOR NEEDS PERFORMANCE	PLANNING PREPARATIVE PROBE PROBLEM SKILLS TRANSITIONAL
Summative Technique		
ACHIEVEMENT COGNITIVE CONTENT INSTRUCTIONAL	KNOWLEDGE OUTCOME PRODUCT PROGRAM	PROJECT RESULTS SUCCESS TRAINING

TABLE SIX:
TITLE WORDS SUGGESTING EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

FORM	SCALE	TAXONOMY
INSTRUMENT	SURVEY	TYPOLOGY
QUESTIONAIRE	TEST	UNOBTRUSIVE
RELIABILITY	TOOL	VALIDITY

TABLE SEVEN:
A MICROTHESAURUS SUGGESTING EVALUATION METHOD, TECHNIQUE OR INSTRUMENT

ACHIEVEMENT	# 14	EFFICIENCY	10	PLANNING	
ACTION	*	EMPIRICAL	6	POOLED	
ANALYSIS	114 *	ERROR	*	PRACTICAL	
ANTECEDENT	2	ESTIMATION	13	PREPARATIVE	3
ANTICIPATORY	+	EVALUATION	101 *	PROBE	
APPRAISAL	6 *	EXPERIENTIAL	5	PROBLEM	
ASSESSMENT	56	EXPERIMENTAL	10	PRODUCT	9
ATTITUDE		FACTOR	6 *	PROFILE	*
BACKGROUND		FIRST-HAND		PROGRAM	105
BASIC		FORM	12	PROJECT	47
CASE STUDY	107	FORMATIVE	*	PURE	
CENSUS	5	FRONT-END		QUALITATIVE	3
CLUSTER	*	GIFT-HORSE		QUANTITATIVE	9
COGNITIVE	6	GROUP		QUESTION-	28
COHORT	*	INFORMAL	*	RATING	2
COMMUNITY	*	INPUT	*	REGRESSION	*
COMPARATIVE	*	INSTRUCTIONAL		RELIABILITY	
COMPARATIVE	17	INSTRUMENT	8	RESEARCH	149 *
COMPETENCE	22	INTERACTION	*	RESPONSE	4
COMPONENTIAL	*	INTERCULTURAL		RESULTS	
CONDITIONAL		INTERVENTION		REVIEW	
CONTENT	*	INTRODUCTORY		ROLE	
CONTEXT	5	ITEM	*	SAMPLE	
CONTINGENCY		JUDGEMENT	4	SCALE	14
CONTINUING		KNOWLEDGE		SELF-	16
COST-	15	LONGITUDINAL		SIMULATION	
COST-BENEFIT		MAIL		SOCIAL	
COST-EFFECTIVE		MEASURE	8	SPATIAL	
COST-EFFICIENT		MEMORY		STATISTICAL	*
COVARIANCE	*	MODEL		STUDY	83
CRITERION-REFERENCE		MONITOR	4	SUCCESS	
CROSS-	3	MOTIVATIONAL		SUMMATIVE	*
CROSS-CULTURAL		MULTIDIMENSIONAL		SURVEY	12
CROSS-GENDER		MULTILEVEL		SYSTEMATIC	
CROSS-SECTION		NEEDS	67 *	SYSTEMS	*
CUSTOMIZED		NOMINAL-GROUP		TASK	*
DAILY		NON-VERBAL		TAXONOMY	2
DATA	*	OBJECTIVE-BASED		TEST	29
DELPHI		OBSERVATION	8	TOOL	2
DEVELOPMENTAL	17	OCCUPATIONAL	*	TRANSACTIONAL	
DIFFERENTIAL	13	OPTIMAL		TRANSITIONAL	
DIRECT		OUTCOME	2	TREATMENT	
DISCRIMINANT	*	OUTPUT	*	TREND	*
DOUBLE-BLIND		PARTICIPATORY	38	TYPOLOGY	6
EDUCATIONAL	*	PATTERN		UNOBTRUSIVE	
EFFECTIVE	33	PERFORMANCE	13	VALIDITY	2
				VARIANCE	*

* Items listed in the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors.
# number of hits realized during the evaluation search.
+ Items where only one hit was realized.

MUTUAL ENLIGHTENMENT IN EDWARDIAN VANCOUVER: AN INTRODUCTION

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This paper will discuss a developing doctoral thesis on the nature and role of mutual enlightenment (non-formal and informal adult education) through voluntary associations in turn-of-the-century Vancouver. Specifically, the thesis proposes to construct a clear conceptual "map" of what voluntary mutual enlightenment meant for late Victorian and Edwardian Vancouver, circa 1900-1914. By investigating in depth several voluntary groups and organizations as agencies of mutual enlightenment, the study will describe and explain the nature, extent, and meaning of mutual enlightenment during this period in Canadian society when private, voluntary agencies of adult education were still the norm and had not yet given way to public, governmental agencies such as public night school and university extension programmes. At a time of massive immigration, economic transformation, and mushrooming cities, particularly in the Canadian West, the thesis will explain the role that these voluntary associations played in a dynamic frontier, and the motives of those behind and those belonging to these associations. A map of this kind will throw new and significant light on the social and intellectual history of Vancouver and British Columbia. This paper will therefore set out the researcher's conception of the work, comment upon the questions being raised and the issues being confronted, and outline the method of study being pursued.

To set the topic into its local context, the following quotation is presented:

> British Columbia may be said to have a standard comparable, at least in essential features, with the most highly developed social organization elsewhere. Its communal characteristics are not, it is needless to say, evolved from local and primitive conditions, but transplanted from the most highly civilized parts of the British Empire....With...churches, schools, lodges, social forms, old-time recreations--all re-established on former lines [--]it is often a surprise to newcomers, who have associated life in the "wild and wooly West" with bears, cowboys, Indians, bowie-knives and desparadoes, to find that they are still far away from the danger of being eaten up by wild beasts, tomahawked and scalped, or shot at sight. They find a state of society almost identical with that which they left. (Gosnell, 1897, p. 412)

With these words, R. E. Gosnell, in the 1897 *Year Book of British Columbia* sought to inspire prospective "newcomers" to immigrate to the newly opening bounty of British Columbia. He waxed majestically about the "'big propositions'" to be made in a land where its frontier was more the potential for wealth than the social life, where "the law is administered fairly and firmly and is respected thoroughly" (p. 413), and where "the residences...aspire to be ranked with those of 'Merrie England'" (p. 414). He painted a picture of incomparable attractiveness and civility.

The expansion and development of the province, economically and socially, was truly remarkable, even if over-romanticized by Gosnell in the manner typical of turn-of-the-century "booster" literature. With completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1886, and especially after the economic depression of the 1890s, British Columbia's economy and population experienced dramatic growth. Railway companies vied to penetrate and to open up vast areas of the province. The Interior lands were opened to settlement, agriculture, and mining. Wealth was found in the harvests of timber, salmon, and minerals. And people came. Whether from overseas, Europe (especially the British Isles), from Asia, or from other parts of North America, British Columbia's population virtually quadrupled, from 98,173 in 1891 to 392,480 in 1911 (MacDonald, R., 1981, p. 377).

The city of Vancouver mirrored, and in fact, far surpassed this expansion in its own spectacular growth. An insignificant coastal lumber-milling village in the early 1880s, Vancouver blossomed into a bustling metropolis of 120,000 by 1911. With completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1887, the city became a critical link in "The Great Red Line," the Empire's transportation and communication route from the Orient via Canada to London, and the destination of tens of thousands of mainly British and Canadian immigrants. It became the dominant economic and metropolitan centre in British Columbia, superceding Victoria in both economic and population dominance by 1900. Between 1900 and 1914, Vancouver had its "golden age," undergoing its most dramatic growth and prosperity, with "many of the city's present characteristics reflect[ing] developments that occured at that time (MacDonald, N., 1977, p. 143).

In his portrait of a civilized and bountiful outpost of the British Empire at the turn of the century, Gosnell also noted the place and significance of voluntary associations in British Columbia life. Apologizing for not being able to publish a full chapter on the subject, "prepared...but owing to limitations of space,...omitted" (p. 413) from the text, he stressed "that one of the most remarkable features of the development of the Province has been the way in which social, fraternal and religious organizations have kept pace with material advancement (p. 414). Clearly, Gosnell recognized the connection between voluntary associations and economic development, and particularly, the associations' role as an imported civilizing leaven, taming and elevating what was still a society of rampant frontier capitalism. He evidently grasped that the voluntary associations, as a sure sign of civilization, could only be understood in their social, economic, and cultural contexts.

Just what was it about these organizations which motivated Gosnell to note their importance and even to apologize for excluding a full chapter on them? What sort of role did they play in civilizing this outpost of the British Empire and how did they do it? What did "civilizing" entail? What was the nature of the bond between voluntary associations, especially as agents of "civilization," and the economic system? Was there a link between capitalism and intellectual, cultural, and social development, especially in an urban environment? Was there a threshold of urban development and integration at which cultural activities such as voluntary associations were generated? What role did they play in city life? How did they play such a role? What and who were the players, in terms of both the voluntary associations and their members? And what motivated these individuals to promote and to participate in such organizations?

While Gosnell only hints at the answers to these questions, others more recently have attempted some answers. Selman (1971), in describing adult educational activities in pre-1914 British Columbia, makes the following empirical generalization:

> By the beginning of the World War,....the young province of British Columbia was making considerable provision for the educational development of its citizens....In the individual communities, an impressive number and variety of voluntary organizations had grown up devoted to the provision of educational and cultural improvement. By these means, those taking part in these developments were seeking to promote the economic growth and social and cultural development of the area. (p. 250)

Like Gosnell, Selman recognizes that the voluntary associations, and particularly their educational activities, can only be understood in their economic, social, and cultural context. Although he does not carry out this contextual analysis, his various generalizations do suggest the thrust of an argument that could explain the "educational" activities of voluntary organizations in turn-of-the-century Vancouver. The above generalization, for instance, asserts that many of the early British Columbia voluntary organizations were engaged in adult education. This assertion is substantiated by noting that of the 203 Vancouver non-church voluntary associations registered with the provincial government between 1892 and 1914 (and this is minimally only one-third or one-quarter of the total number for Vancouver), 194 have objectives which could be broadly defined as "educational" (*The British Columbia Gazette*, 1892-1914). Furthermore, Selman's generalization suggests several possible motives to explain the promotion of and particpation in these organizations: economic, social, and cultural, including aesthetic-creative, improvement. The precise nature and validity of these and other potential motives requires extensive reseach. Furthermore, the broad range of voluntary associations suggests that they might be "mapped" to locate the associations in their historic context and to describe and explain not only the nature of the groups and their personnel and programs but also how these manifest the motives suggested in Selman's statement and work.

Mapping an activity such as adult education is, of course, not entirely new. Any attempt to locate and describe patterns of activity, within its specific context, can be conceptualized as "mapping." The work of J. F. C. Harrison (1961), Thomas Kelly (1970), Brian Simon (1960, 1965), Malcolm Knowles (1962), Lawrence Cremin (1980), Ron Faris (1975), Gordon Selman (1971), and Foster Vernon (1969) can be cited as examples, although the quality and historical sensitivity varies considerably, with the work of Harrison, Simon, and Cremin being perhaps the more superior. In each of the latter cases, the author makes some attempt at explanation, using examples of institutions in order to explain the origin, clientele, purpose, and development of each within its social and economic context. Each author is able to show how different institutions or groups of institutions arose in response to certain social and economic conditions caused by the industrial revolution and resulting urbanization, and to certain popular values including thrift, respectability, "the gospel of work," and "the doctrine of self-help" (Harrison, p. 210). The more literate classes, generally the promoters and social commentators, however, provided the evidence from which these authors made their interpretations. One wonders what the clientele thought and felt, and what they gained through their participation. However, the tools useful for detailed investigation of the consumers of adult education, including prosopography and statistical analysis, were not used in the works cited above. As well, the scope of these works was broad, and involved large time spans, major national contempory issues and social forces, and in most cases the whole nation, a large region, or a large segment of the population. Nevertheless, knowledge concerning the consumers of adult education is warranted and should make an enlightening and valuable contribution to our understanding of adult education and its place in society.

A desire to learn about the consumers or participants, as well as the promoters, leads back to the need to describe and explain the motives for such involvement. While the motives suggested in Selman's generalization might at best be described as hypothetical clues, there is reason to believe that they are broadly valid. Other, generally more recent, historians have written more extensively about voluntary associations and their role in the Victorian and Edwardian period. While none appears to have focused specifically on educational activities over a range of voluntary associations, each has made interpretations and offered explanations along the lines indicated by Selman.

Perhaps the most relevant and useful study, certainly for focusing on Vancouver, is R. A. J. MacDonald's (1977) study of Vancouver's business elite. He sought "to define the economic and social character of the top portion of the business community in early Vancouver, and to explore the process by which this community was formed" (p. ii). Using group biography of the members of that elite as his method, MacDonald examined their social life and their connections through athletic and social clubs, philanthropic, cultural, and charitable associations, and political and business organizations. This elite group assumed the leadership over much of the intellectual, cultural, social, athletic, charitable, and political life of Vancouver, a young, commercially oriented city with no historical "aristocracy."

Membership in such organizations revolved around several motives. Perhaps the most significant were social prestige, and social and business integration. In supporting the assumption that club membership was "one of the best windows onto the social cleavages which divided businessmen in a city" (p. 250), MacDonald found that "the club memberships of business leaders in particular reflected the social nature of their origins and upbringing, and provide an excellent index of the class dimensions of their social role in the community" (p. 281). So important was this ladder of prestige that less prominent business and professional families patronized various charitable and cultural associations as "one way...to increase their ties with the upper class, and thus gain a measure of social acceptance" (p. 277). Such associations provided, as well, a useful vehicle for business contacts. MacDonald, however, is unable to support this social acceptance hypothesis conclusively, owing in part to the tendency for the less prominent to leave less complete records (p. 280). Bailey (1978) and Harrison (1961), however, do support this notion, at least in England. Both report a drive for respectability and social acceptance as a significant motivator for participation in adult education and "rational recreation" by some working class and certainly many middle class individuals. Research into self and mutual improvement by working class individuals is developing and is providing a counterbalance to the more comprehensively researched adult education programmes organized by middle class promoters, for example, mechanics' institutes (see Vincent, 1981).

Another aspect of social integration, the voluntary association as a substitute for the family, is given greater prominence by Bailey (1978). Although referring to the new cities of Victorian England, Bailey notes that:

> the solitary family was inadequate for social fulfilment and the middle class, no less than the working class, had to build its secondary associations to combat the strains of the new environment. For recreation these might take the form of private house or garden parties among business associates or the extended family, but a major agent of regeneration was certainly the formally constituted club or society. These voluntary associations embraced a wide range of activities: sports, amateur soldiering, literary and scientific education and debate, the definition and promotion of professional interests, and the pursuit of reform--all, in varying degrees, performed an important social function....By such means did the mid-Victorian middle classes sustain communities of interest which overcame the bariers of a cellular suburban society. (pp. 76-77)

Such a motive for voluntary association should surely make sense in a new, rapidly growing city, thousands of miles from most of Vancouver's citizens' places of birth.

Another motive for patronage of charitable and cultural organizations was the belief that responsibility for the "provision of basic social and cultural amenities" lay with the individual rather than the state (R. MacDonald, 1977, pp. 276-277). Leadership came from middle as well as upper class citizens, and religious conviction may have been part of the motive, especially for charitable work (pp. 276–277). Also, the ideal of "social citizenship" (Meller, 1976) or the "progressive community" (Yeo, 1976) appears to have still held sway in the first decade of this century. Related to the development of liberal capitalism in the mid-nineteenth century, this ideal held that the newly industrialized cities, with their vast array of human miseries and threats to public order, could be made "civilized." Through a network of voluntary associations, with membership comprised of the respectable working classes and the middle classes, and drawing upon the intellectual and cultural resources available in a city, the lives of all would be enriched (or controlled, eg. see Howe, 1976) by programmes of vocational and liberal education, amateur science, recreation, and culture, and made safe through various schemes of public health. Among his examples, R. A. J. MacDonald quotes Lady Tupper, who in 1902 as president of the Women's Auxiliary of the Vancouver General Hospital, said that, "'We... have realized from the first...that the women of Mount Pleasant, the East End and the Hastings manufacturing sector must be part of our organization, and we recognize the fact that a special effort will have to be made to this end.'" (p. 277). He also notes that the less glamorous the work, the less likely would its leadership be drawn strictly from the elite class (p. 279).

While MacDonald does not discuss the nature of the general membership nor even the aims of his subject organizations, his study is most valuable for outlining the leadership structure of the city and its organizations, and some of the motives for the business elite's patronage of these organizations. Perhaps, in building their city, they saw as Geddes and Branford that:

> The central and significant fact about the city,...is that the city...functions as the specialized organ of social transmission. It accumulates and embodies the heritage of region, and combines in some measure and kind with the cultural heritage of larger units, national, racial, religious, human. On one side is the individuality of the city--the sign manual of its regional life and record. On the other are the marks of the civilization, in which each particular city is a constituent element. (Quoted by Mumford, 1938, pp. 6–7)

Other important studies include Johnson's (1975) and McCormack's (1977) researches into the early socialist and labour groups in British Columbia and Vancouver. Both suggest that some of these organizations had educational and propagandistic goals. While not going into detail on the methods for achieving these goals or on the personnel structure of the organizations, their research indicates that some of the radicals obviously saw education as a means to working-class consciousness raising and to revolutionary change.

In a related study, Palmer (1979) explores the working-class culture of the mid nineteenth to early twentieth century Hamilton, Ontario. He provides valuable insight into how skilled working men adjusted and defended their culture against the strains of industrial capitalism. Central to this conflict was the voluntary association--friendly societies, fire-engine halls, baseball teams, and mechanics' institutes. Palmer surmizes "that the associational life of skilled workers cultivated a sense of solidarity that strengthened the ability of the skilled to resist the encroachments of industrial-capitalist disciplines and development" (p. 39). He suggests several motives for workers' involvement in the friendly societies, and some lessons:

> a measure of security against sickness and death; association with their peers or, perhaps for some, the chance to cultivate ties with their betters; simple recreation away from the confines of family and work, often realized in a game of carpet ball or quoits, or an excursion on the steamboats of Burlington Bay; an affirmation of their status as respectable members of the community, dispensers of charity and good works, and not just, as in occasional times of great need, recipients. The lessons they learned would be equally varied: the benefits and attractions of equality, fraternity, and cooperation, on the one hand, all deeply embedded within the consciousness of the emerging labour movement; or, on the other hand, deference, accommodation, and an exclusionary contempt for those less attuned to the practices of sober thrift and appropriate property. (p. 43)

In the more clearly adult educational mechanics' institutes, Palmer stresses that they:

> cannot be divorced from their local context, in which the strength of the working-class movement would contribute to the vibrancy of the working-class presence in these early buildings of adult education. Nor must we mistake the hegemony of propertied elements, so common in many institutes, for an acquiescent working class constituency. Merchants, manufacturers, and clerks could often control local institutes, while workingmen utilized the services for their own puroses, often expressing distinct dissatisfaction with the policies and practices of the directors. (p. 50)

Clearly, this example of the users' response to middle class philanthropy through mechanics' institutes shows that contradictory motives can co-exist in the same organization. It thus demonstrates the necessity of examining the motives for and impact of participation in a voluntary association within its local context and from differerent angles.

Finally, Weiss (1983) documents the extremely important role that women and their organizations played in Vancouver between 1910 and 1928. She shows how Vancouver women sought to advance the "maternal feminist" ideology of the period, their goals being to reform society, "to extend their citizenship powers, [and] to gain both the right and the opportunity to influence legislation that would in turn convert the goals of maternal feminism into reality." (p. ii). These women, of all social classes, though with a preponderance of middle and upper middle class representation, educated themselves "in order that they might have the skill and confidence to adequately play the more public role that they envisioned for themselves." (p. iii). They operated through organizations, six of which Weiss examines in detail, and which were similar to those studied by R. A. J. MacDonald (1977). Weiss, however, goes far beyond these other authors. She examines the organizations' memberships and programmes in detail, including the 33 women who formed the leadership core, in order to analyze their motives and aspirations. In this way, she is able to provide rich background data to a significant movement of this period, and gives attention to the generally overlooked and revealing content features of an organization's programme.

Gillis (1979), in reviewing Bailey's (1978) book, suggests that a people's culture can be revealed through the content of its organization's programme. He argues that:

> Bailey's conclusions about...music-hall culture might have been more convincing had he given more attention to the songs, routines, and dialogues presented there. We learn much about the economy of the halls, the working conditions of the of the performers, and the composition of the audience, but the content of the culture remains obscure. (pp. 109-110)

The preceding discussion of relevant research suggests that Selman's empirical generalization is useful for providing a focus from which to explain the educational activities of voluntary associations. Careful and sensitive attention to an organization's general membership, along with its leadership, and relating these to the local economic, social, and cultural contexts can suggest the motives for their involvement. Analysis of the organization's programmes should provide further insights, particularly to their actual, as opposed to stated, objectives.

As shown by the above research, the motives are complex. Bailey (1983), in a recent review of leisure in the Victorian city, aptly comments on the difficulty of explaining these motives within the context of a rapidly emerging and changing urban landscape:

> For the historians reviewed above, whatever their ideological persuasion, urbanization is a mostly secondary and inconclusive determinant of leisure....Class, culture and capitalism are the primary explanatory categories. The cultural reconstruction of the mid-nineteenth century and beyond is interpreted in terms of class-based strategies and adaptations seen variously in conflict, negotiation and accommodation, convergence and divergence. The process is dialectical and complex. (p. 75)

Only by sensitively grounding an investigation of voluntary associations and by accounting for the significant forces on these organizations and their clientele can an accurate picture be made and their behaviour adequately explained.

DEFINITIONS

Even with this thrust of the research, a problem remains. Selman uses the term "education" to describe the activities of his selected organizations. Other historians discuss the "educational" role and functions of at least some of their subject organizations. The exact nature of this "education", however, is obscure since most voluntary associations and institutions did not use this term to cover most of what now might be classified as "educational."

That some kind of "education" or "improvement" of adults through the organizations appears to have been a major goal, however, has been noted above with 194 of 203 provincially registered Vancouver associations claiming broadly educational objectives. Most associations used clauses virtually identical with those contained in relevant government acts. For example, the "Benevolent Societies Act", Revised Statute 1897, states that:

> Any number of persons may unite themselves into a society or corporation for any or more of the following purposes: (1.) For any benevolent, or provident, or moral, or charitable, or religious purpose: (3.) For purposes of social intercourse, mutual helpfulness, mental and moral improvement, and rational recreation: (4.) For improvement and development of the mental, social, and physical condition of young men and young women: (5.) For the promotion of literature, science, or the fine arts, and the promotion and diffusion of knowledge: (6.) For promoting the cause of temperance and moral reform: (10.) For providing means of recreation, exercise, and amusement by means of- (a.) Boating clubs: (b.) Bathing clubs: (c.) Athletic and gymnastic clubs: (d.) Choral societies: (12.) For the purpose of establishing chambers of mines, chambers of commerce, tourist associations, mining institutes and associations. (*The Revised Statutes of British Columbia*, 1911, pp. 175–176)

Just what each clause meant to the promoters of associations and organizations using them is not yet clear. Thus one purpose of this study is to discover and to interpret these meanings, to ask how far the clauses guided practice, and to discriminate among organizations, for example, by excluding profit oriented organizations. To this end, and to avoid using the problematic and presentist term "education," the concept term "mutual enlightenment" has been created and will be used throughout the study. Mutual enlightenment will also more precisely and sensitively capture the essence of the meaning of the phenomena expressed in the clauses of the "Benevolent Societies Act" above, for example.

Mutual Enlightenment

First, it must be stated that the term "mutual enlightenment" does not exist as an active meaningful or popular concept, either historically or at present. It has been coined for the purposes of this study. The phenomenon which "mutual enlightenment" symbolizes, however, has been going on in all sorts of voluntary associations and institutions throughout the world, with those found in turn-of-the-century Vancouver being particularly, though not necessarily completely, representative of British, Canadian, and American models and themes. It was also going on under a variety of conceptual names, none of which accurately described it. Examples include: "adult education," "mutual education," "mutual improvement," "mental and moral improvement," and "the promotion and diffusion of knowledge."

To direct the study and to clarify the essence and central conditions of the concept and its conceptual boundaries, a process of conceptual analysis is in order. Fortunately, this sort of analysis has been performed by several philosophers on the concept "education" (eg. Paterson, 1979; Peters, 1966; Snook, 1972). Since "mutual enlightenment" is synonymous with "education," in the modern sense, it would be useful, then, to summarize the arguments used to clarify the meaning of "education."

Initially, to give focus, "education" is defined:

> as the deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, evoke, or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, skills and sensibililties, as well as any outcomes of that effort. The definition stresses intentionality, though I am well aware that

> learning takes place in many situations where intentionality is not present. It makes room for study as well as instruction, thereby embracing the crucial realm of self-education. And it acknowledges that behavior, preferences, and tastes are involved, as well as knowledge and understanding. It sees education as a process more limited than what the sociologists would call socialization or the anthropologist enculturation, though obviously inclusive of many of the same phenomena. And it recognizes that there is often conflict between what educators are trying to teach and what is learned from the ordinary business of living. (Cremin, 1976, p. 27)

While useful as a clear and yet broad definition, Cremin's "education", however, is not entirely adequate. He stesses the *intentionality* of "education," that somebody has actually *meant* to educate somebody else or somebody has *meant* to organize and to learn a certain body of knowledge or skill. He also specifically delimits "education" from the related concepts of socialization and enculturation, primarily through the the notion of intentionality. And, of course, he clearly implies that "education" is not limited to schools or other similarly state-regulated agencies. Many other private and public organizations and institutions can be educative--voluntary associations, private training schools and tutors, libraries, museums, churches, public meetings, and the media in its entertainment, journalistic, and advertising forms. Therein lies the problem.

Some forms and agencies can be disputed as being representative of "education." Cremin makes no provision for ruling out such activities as preaching, indoctrination, propaganda, behavioural conditioning, scientific research, artistic creation, and in some cases, training, and drill. These are clearly *not* "education," yet each would be included under Cremin's definition. Cremin's historical studies naturally also include such activities as being "educational." Thus while his definition and his research are therefore tautological in nature, it is fair to suggest that Cremin has over-extended his definition, and thus his "educational" histories, to include subjects which are not "educational."

The importance of this suggestion will become more apparent as the concept "education" is analyzed--its central criteria outlined and its limitations exposed. Out of this summarized analysis the nature of the concept "mutual enlightenment" will emerge. Thus, it will become apparent that "mutual enlightenment" depends on the Cremin definition of "education" but that "mutual enlightenment" will bring to it certain modifications of tone and procedure.

These modifications have been clearly outlined by philosophers in the field of conceptual or linguistic analysis. Perhaps the best known authority in this field, at least in the analysis of educational concepts, is R. S. Peters. Rather than simply formulating a definition and examples, as Cremin appears to have done, Peters' method of analysis is to distinguish and to map out the central and peripheral uses of a term and thus to formulate criteria as to similarities and differences in usage of the term (Peters, 1966, pp. 23-24).

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Such is the case of "education." As Peters opens his argument he describes "education":

> 'Education' is not a term like 'gardening' which picks out a particular type of activity. Something, of course, must be going on if education is taking place and something must have been gone through for a person to emerge as an educated man. For education is associated with learning, not with a mysterious maturation. But no specific type of activity is required. A man can do it by himself in solitary confinement, or acquire it by constant activity in a small group. He can be trained on his own by a tutor or be inspired by lectures given to 500. In this respect 'education' is rather like 'reform'. It picks out no particular activity or process. Rather it lays down criteria to which activities or processes must conform...., [although] 'Education' does not imply, like 'reform', that a man should be brought back from a state of turpitude into which he has lapsed. (Peters, 1966, pp. 24–25)

While acknowledging the injustice in not presenting Peters' full analysis of the concept, he has quite succinctly summarized the criteria which are "implicit in central cases of 'education'" (Peters, 1966, p. 45). He states:

> (i) that 'education' implies the [intentional] transmission of what is worth-while to those who become commited to it; (ii) that 'education' must involve knowledge and understanding and some kind of perspective, which is not inert; (iii) that 'education' at least rules out some procedures of transmission, on the grounds that they lack wittingness and voluntariness on the part of the learner. (p. 45)

These criteria are not unlike the central notions implied in Cremin's definition, especially in the intentional transmission of knowledge. However, by virtue of "education" being conceptualized as normative, in the positive sense, as enlightening, and as voluntary, Peters' criteria impose clear limitations on just what does and does not qualify as "education." Considering that the "educational" programs of some organizations such as churches, temperance societies, and political groups, may, in fact, be indoctrinatory or propagandistic, it is imperative that the contours and boundaries of "education" be mapped out and that the concepts mistakenly subsumed under "education" be either excluded or properly categorized.

As mentioned, indoctrination, propaganda, behavioural conditioning, artistic creation, and scientific research are not "education." Education requires that the learner "end up with whatever belief the evidence demands. He is concerned with the methods of assessing data, standards of accuracy, and the validity of reasoning. The answers are subsidiary to the methods in giving answers" (Snook, 1972, pp. 55–56). Indoctrination and propaganda, on the other hand, are teaching with the intention that the learner believe what is being taught regardless of the evidence. The indoctrinator or propagandist is concerned with the inculcation of beliefs, and he will use whatever "evidence, logic, and proof...[will] further his aim" (Snook, 1972, p. 56). Conditioning violates other criteria. It requires neither the voluntary participation of the learner nor comprehension of the process or knowledge. Finally, reseach and artistic creation are rejected as "education," not because of their value or even the learning which occurs, but rather because they involve the creation of *new* knowledge, not the re-creation and transmission of accepted knowledge (Paterson, 1979, p. 271).

Other educationally-related terms, "training," "drill," "instruction," and "teaching" are conceptually compatible with, but independent of, "education." They become "educational" only when they conform to the criteria which define "education." Thus they may describe processes and activities which lead the learner towards an "educational" experience. They may also describe how one learns the "art of torture" (Peters, 1966, p. 92).

The purpose of this rather extensive definitional process is, of course, to define "mutual enlightenment." "Mutual enlightenment" will symbolize this modified conception of "education." Its meaning is restricted to education which was occurring within and through voluntary associations at the turn-of-the-century, hence the term "mutual" appended to the term "enlightenment."

As will be discovered in the next section which defines "voluntary association," these definitions convey some of the very essence of participation in such an association. It is the nature of the "glue" which binds the individuals together in an association. Illustrative of this notion is the following definition of "mutual":

> Designating various other societies organized so that the members are of assistance to each other; [and offering as examples,]....' mutual benefit societies, on the principle of the English clubs'.... [and] 'mutual improvement and debating societies'. (Craigie & Hulbert, 1942, p. 1576)

Voluntary Association

As with "education," there is no agreement in the literature on a reasonably precise and operational definition of "voluntary association." Even attempts at conceptual analysis (eg. Palisi, 1972) add little to clarifying its central criteria, let alone its boundaries or even its conceptual name. The term "voluntary association" is essentially synonymous with "voluntary organization" and shares the same conceptual territory as "clubs," "societies," "self-help groups," "leagues," "orders," "councils," "chambers," "parties," and "unions." Yet, as with "education" and its related concepts and thus with "mutual enlightenment," it is paramount for this study to map out a valid and operational definition for "voluntary association."

A fairly typical sociological definition describes voluntary associations "as being private, non-profit, and having members who are free to leave by their own choice" (Palisi, 1972, p. 41). Sills (1968) offers a more complete definition. He defines a voluntary association as:

> an organized group of persons (1) that is formed in order to further some common interest of its members; (2) in which membership is voluntary in the sense that it is neither mandatory nor acquired through birth; and (3) that exists independently of the state. (pp. 362-363)

He also admits that this definition cannot be used with precision, it is too broad, thereby admitting "all nonstate organizations [including] churches, business firms, labor unions, foundations, private schools and universities, cooperatives, and political parties." (p. 363). Thus he adds two additional criteria:

> First, the major activity of the organization is not related to the business of making a living, that is, to the economic activities of of its members (as in the case of professional associations, trade unions, or cooperatives). Second, the volunteer (i.e., nonsalaried) members constitute a majority of the participants (as they do not in corporations, universities, or foundations, in which the directors or trustees are in a minority vis-a-vis the employees, faculty, or students). (p. 363)

Thus, for the purpose of this study, voluntary associations are defined as private, non-profit, open-membership associations, organized for a specific purpose, and ranging from single formal voluntary associations, as in a literary club, to member units of a provincial or national, corporate or federated voluntary organization, as in the Y.M.C.A. or the Canadian Club. Classification of individual organizations will be based upon the above criteria, although historical evidence should further clarify the criteria and allow for consistent classification. Also, associations whose goals and/or behaviour explicitly and intentionally violate the criteria set for "mutual enlightenment" will be exluded from the research. Thus only voluntary associations significantly committed to intentional mutual enlightenment will be studied.

AIMS OF THE STUDY

The study will develop a clear conceptual "map" of what mutual enlightenment meant for late Victorian and Edwardian Vancouver. By investigating various groups and organizations as agencies of mutual enlightenment, the study will describe and explain the nature and extent of mutual enlightenment in terms of: its aims, methods, and curricula; the relationships between these and the various associations' sponsors, clientele, and constituencies; and its manifestations within the local socio-economic context. It should portray a society trying, out of a disparate and fragmented set of cultural artifacts to develop an appropriate intellectual, moral, scientific, and technological backdrop to the everyday business of making a living.

The central question, therefore, is: just what motives did promoters and participants have for their involvement in mutual enlightenment? In what configurations (see Cremin, 1976; 1980) did these motives find their expression? How did these motives and configurations reflect the social, intellectual, economic, political, and cultural conditions of late nineteenth, early twentieth century Vancouver?

Briefly, it is hypothesized that these organizations arose in Vancouver to satisfy the urge of adults:

1. To provide for their own social improvement;
2. To discover and nourish their creative and artistic urges;
3. To encourage science, technology, and art in order to improve and to impel economic activity;
4. To import and recreate the best of British and European cultural "tone";
5. To create a sense of community;
6. To increase recreational and leisure opportunities;

7. To retain one's cultural heritage;
8. To promote Canadian and Empire consciousness and sentiment;
9. To rid society of its "social ills," including intemperance, poor private and public health, urban slums, vagrancy, prostitution, gambling, unemployment, crime, ignorance, and illiteracy; and
10. To loosen an excessively rigid social class and political structure.

To discover and explain these motives and configurations and to thereby construct a map several tasks need to be accomplished. For each relevant voluntary association it is necessary :

1. To describe its origin; the social, intellectual, economic, political, cultural, and personal circumstances in which it made its appearance;
2. To discover its explicit aims, goals, and objectives;
3. To consider the constituency that supported each association and that supported each kind of association;
4. To discover the clientele of each association, thereby explaining the social and intellectual function of the association;
5. To measure, quantitatively and non-quantitatively, the impact or success, if any, of each association;
6. To explain the continued health, decline, or disappearance of the association;
7. To explain the internal life of the association--its bureaucratic functions, decision-making process, and power relationships;
8. To clarify the explicit and hidden curricula of each association.

Placed in appropriate social, intellectual, economic, political, and cultural contexts, the evidence provided by these researches will be the basis for constructing a map of mutual enlightenment through voluntary associations in turn-of-the-century Vancouver, British Columbia. This map will both describe and explain this phenomenon within a rapidly growing and changing urban environment. It will suggest a topography of specific configurations of constituencies, clientele, and voluntary associations. The map will also clarify and explain much of the internal educational and social life of Vancouver, showing the role that mutual enlightenment played in the development, conflicts, and vigour of this new and very British city.

METHODOLOGY

Initial research has indicated that there were more than seven hundred voluntary organizations (associations, clubs, institutes, orders, societies, and unions) operating in Vancouver alone during the period 1886-1914. How many actually existed for reasons of intentional mutual enlightenment is unknown. The decision whether a specific organization falls within the scope of the research depends on whether it was voluntary or non-voluntary, whether or not intentional mutual enlightenment was a significant goal of the organization, and whether or not there is enough evidence to conduct an appropriate historical analysis. Collection and analysis of the evidence continues, and clarification of the operational definitions of "voluntary organization" and "mutual enlightenment" depends on this evidence. Thus decisions about the acceptability or non-acceptability of specific organizations and their programmes have to wait until completion of this initial, plus a second, phase of research.

The second phase of research has two objectives. The first objective is to examine the records and accounts of certain voluntary organizations that most *obviously* have to be studied. These organizations, as the initial research phase has shown, are voluntary and have left behind significant quantities of historical evidence. These organizations, for the purpose of this research, are "exemplars." As exemplars, they are most obviously representative of voluntary organizations with mutual enlightenment aims. They were selected because their programmes, as well as their aims, were educational. As exemplars, they are critically important for delineating the central principles and boundaries of "mutual enlightenment" and mutual enlightenment organizations. Through a process of conceptual analysis they will create the outlines of the map. Also, they reduce the number of organizations to be analyzed to a more manageable ten.

Another 40 or 50 organizations will also be studied to fully flesh out the contours of the map and to extend the research to the full range of hypothetical motives and potential population groups. These other organizations, unlike the exemplars, should more accurately represent the various social and economic groups within the city's organizations' memberships.

The exemplars chosen are:

1. British Columbia Mountaineering Club (1906...);
2. Burrard Literary Society (1894–1904);
3. Men's Canadian Club (1906...);
4. Princess St. Methodist Church Epworth League;
5. Vancouver Art, Historical and Scientific Association (1890...);
6. Vancouver Arts and Crafts Association (1900–1901);
7. Vancouver Naturalist Field Club (1907);
8. Vancouver Women's Musical Club (1905...);
9. Vancouver Young Women's Christian Association (1897...);
10. Young Men's Christian Association Of Vancouver, B.C. (1886...).

The second objective within this phase of research is to decide how much contextual research will be necessary in order to explain the activity and the impact of the exemplars.

The internal life and external activities of exemplar organizations will be studied through analyses of each organization's records and account. These records and accounts include organizational documents (constitutions, regulations, membership lists, minutes, and financial records), and external or internal evidence, including newspaper stories and relevant personal documents of persons associated with each organization. With this knowledge in hand, we can answer the questions implied by the following tasks, re-copied here for convenience:

1. To discover its (the organization's) explicit and implicit aims, goals, and objectives;
2. To explain the continued health, decline, or disappearance of the organization;
3. To explain the internal life of the organization--its bureaucratic functions, decision-making process, and power relationships;
4. To clarify the explicit and hidden curricula of each organization.

Contextual studies, relying on membership lists, census data, theses on the social history of Vancouver, and impressionistic evidence from that period, including the intellectual climate and interests of British Columbia, Canada, and the international scene should help to accomplish these tasks. The contextual studies should be formally similar for each exemplar. For each exemplar voluntary organization we should be able:

1. To describe its (the organization's) origin; the social, intellectual, economic, political, cultural, and personal circumstances in which it made its appearance;
2. To consider the constituency that supported each organization and that supported each kind of organization;
3. To discover the clientele of each organization, thereby explaining the social and intellectual function of the organization;
4. To measure, quantitatively and non-quantitatively, the impact or sucess, if any, of each organization.

Three illustrative examples of contextual research, all concerning the Vancouver Art, Historical and Scientific Association follow:

1. Assess the professional status of artists by asking if an artist could earn a living doing only art work, and by comparing this with other professionals in order to determine how professional and how amateur was the Association. This finding will enable at least an indirect explanation of the methods and content of VAHSA's mutual enlightenment activities and of the VAHSA clientele. Relevant sources include the 1901 and 1911 census data on professional categories, on salaries, and on the number of artists, musicians, photographers, and even architects in Vancouver.
2. Compare the social, economic, and political profile of the VAHSA with the profile of the entire population of Vancouver, To determine the city's population profile, and thus the membership context of the Association, the census data, as well as evidence contained in social histories of Vancouver, and impressionistic evidence such as contemporary social comment, will be invaluable.
3. Discover the extent to which the VAHSA was a British import. To do so means

studying the ethnic origins of the VAHSA membership and studying the existence of similar organizations in British cities.

Once this second phase of research is completed for all the exemplars--that is, studying the internal life and external activities of the exemplar organizations and the context of these organizations--it will be possible to clarify definitions and to begin classifying and studying other relevant organizations.

SUMMARY

The thesis proposes to construct an explanatory map of voluntary organizations concerned with intentional mutual enlightenment among adults in late nineteenth and early twentieth century Vancouver, British Columbia. The paper began with Selman's empirical generalization on promoters' and participants' motives for adult education through voluntary organizations. This generalization, along with other relevant studies, helped to generate hypotheses about other potential motives, and a list of researches to discover and explain these motives, thereby constructing the map.

The thesis rests on several definitions. Mutual enlightenment, broadly defined, is education. However, it is both rational and non-indoctrinatory in its objectives, methods, and content. It excludes those organizations and institutions which explicitly and intentionally violate the criteria which define mutual enlightenment and those which prepare people for eventual recognition through formal public or private education. Organizations with explicitly indoctrinatory goals, for example, are excluded from study. Likewise excluded are public and private schools, vocational training schools, colleges and universities, and churches, although autonomous voluntary associations affiliated with colleges and churches will be included.

Voluntary organizations are defined as private, non-profit, open-membership associations organized for a specific purpose or goal. Like "mutual enlightenment," this definition is not specific or clear enough to be adequately operationalized. Because the literature does not yet provide clear criteria for operationalization, the definition must, therefore, flow from historical evidence.

This definitional problem with these concepts has led to selection of a methodology that chooses exemplar organizations. These exemplars are distinguished by being clearly voluntary and by engaging in mutual enlightenment. The internal organizational life and external activities of these organizations, within their historical context, will be researched. Only by understanding these exemplar organizations within their context can we decide whether to extend the research to such organizations as trade unions, trade associations, professional associations, fraternal orders, and political parties.

Finally, and though not discussed, the thesis should develop along a number of tentative themes. These themes should spotlight problem areas to which groups of organizations responded, with any single organization having been able to respond to any number of problem areas. Problem areas included a perceived need: (1) to to generate a moralistic national and/or British Empire consciousness; (2) to combat the symptoms and causes of a variety of social problems; (3) to respond to the growth of the natural and social sciences and technology; (4) to educate in the art of politics; (5) to develop aesthetic sensibilities; and (6) to promote economic advancement. The research in exemplar organizations should confirm these themes or suggest alternatives.

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Psychosocial representations and adult education

Adèle Chené

To introduce the topic of my paper, I would like to refer to three examples in which developmental psychological theory has been used to conceptualize and articulate models of adult education. I do so in order to point out how education sometimes borrows from other disciplines without being sufficiently sensitive to the problems of the portability of theory from one discipline to another.

In a 1982 article in New Directions for Experiential Learning, David L. Singer describes a graduate education model largely based on the work of Levinson and other developmental psychologists which favors the sharing of experience with peers, coping with stress at the beginning of professional life and especially so called mentoring relationships. Similarly, Catherine Marienau and Arthur Chickering in the same journal in the same year view higher education as answering developmental needs, problems of life transitions and the requirements for changing life structures. In 1970, R.J. Havighurst, in Changing status and roles during the adult life cycle, argued for a program in education based squarely on the theory of life cycle; to each decade of the developmental process correspond a variety of specific educational activities which are said to fulfill developmental needs. At fifty years old, for instance, begins introspection which will lead to the study of literature, philosophy and religion while in the next decade of life, the learner will show a preference for cultural programs of a passive nature.

Implicit in these three examples, is a theory of adult development understood as a series of discrete phases. This theory is taken for granted and used as a basis of an educational program for people expected to exhibit needs corresponding to the theory.

Let us now take a closer look at developmental theories as they have been constructed within psychology and according to the requirements of that discipline. We will wee, I believe, that implicit in these theories is a representation of reality which often enters into education models unnoticed.

Developmental psychology studies changes in behavior of personality which can be associated with aging. It discovers regularities through the differences which distinguish an individual during his or her life. Stevens-Long (1979) gives the main assumptions of the dialectical approach and that of the organicists. According to the organicists, the changes which occur in the course of life are so radical that they cannot be interpreted by a difference in degree of experience; also, the causes of change are to be found in the organism itself. Piaget's four stages of cognitive development and Kohlberg's six stages of moral development belong to the organicist model. With the dialectical approach, the interaction of individuals with their environment is stressed. Element of a system, the individual has to ajust to social expectations throughout his or her life and he/she does so by transforming his or her own structure. Individual crises are solved by a new unity of the self. To give examples, we may refer to Erikson's ego stages (1963) or Levinson's stages in a man's life (1978).

To understand actual research on life cycle, we have to go back to Jung who, according to Staude (1981), gave the first representation of expected personality change in the course of life. In a text dated of 1930, Jung (1978) compares life to the course of a day: in the morning, one is busy with adapting to the world and in the afternoon, concerned with self-unity. Furthermore, he divides life into 4 phases: first, in childhood and adolescence, ego identity is established; second, with maturity, one is busy with securing material conditions for later life and founding a family; third, a crisis between 35 and 40 years old puts the individual on the path of interiority; fourth, after a transition similar to adolescence, the old reaches self-completion. In Jung's model, distinct phases in one's life correspond to new profiles of life and internal dynamism gives its direction to individual development. Jung saw in individuation the purpose of human life. It is the same principle that Bühler (Bühler and Massarik, 1968) called self-determination and Erikson (1963), integrity.

In the late thirties, social roles were combined with biogical and psychological variables to form new models of human development. At the same time, we notice that the life cycle became more and more fragmented. For instance, Havighurst (1948) divided the life span into six stages to which corresponded distinct developmental tasks; later, with more precision, he portrayed eight stages more or less equivalent to eight chronological decades. The first half or life is characterized by physiological and psychological maturation, familial and professional commitments. The second half is characterized by physical involution, psychological disengagement and social and professional retirement. Each stage in the aging process is seen as bringing a new equilibrium between the individual's own potential and aspirations and expected roles on the social calendar.

When he first introduced his developmental model, Erikson was aware that he was putting emphasis on childhood. I shall briefly recall the main principles which underlie the idea of the 8 ages of man: the sequence of psychosexual and psychosocial stages is linked to somatic processes through an internal dynamism of the organism called epigenesis; development occurs with dramatic shifts along a series of stages and crises; the shrenghts at one stage give access to the subsequent stage; at each stage, one relates to society in a specific way. The three stages of adult life are successively characterized by intimacy or isolation, generativity or stagnation, integration or despair. Erikson ends the cycle on an "informed and detached concern with life itself in the face of death itself" (1982, p. 61) and a vision that "individual life is the coincidence of but one individual life with but one segment of history" (1982, p. 65-66). Although Erikson had seen that the stage of wisdom had to be reexamined in relation to the actual social reality of old age, he nevertheless maintained that integration could overcome the desintegrating effects of physical, psychological and social losses.

Most recent models of human development have drawn upon Erikson's psychosocial sequence of the course of life.

In a first book which has become popular, Gail Sheehy (1976) used alternating periods of crisis and stability, with the assumption that transformations always imply a rupture, to describe the development of adults between 18 and 50 years of age. More recently (1981), the author has pinpointed 10 main passages between 16 and 70 years old.

In his research on adult life cycle, George E. Vaillant (1977) introduced career consolidation between Erikson's stages of intimacy and generativity. From age 25 to 35, the Grant Study men "tended to work hard, to consolidate their careers and to devote themselves to the nuclear family" (p. 216). "At 47, men had moved to generativity" (p. 218). According to Vaillant, progression in the life cycle necessitates growth and change but crisis is the exception, not the rule. This position on critical moments is also found in Bernice Neugarten (Neugarten and Datan, 1972): "The events are anticipated and rehearsed, the grief work completed. the reconciliation accomplished without shattering this sense of continuity of the life cycle".

In 1978, Roger L. Gould presented a model in which 4 distinct phases lay the course of adult development between the age of 16 and 50, when one comes to terms with the demonic reality of painful childhood states.

With Levinson's model (1978), the dynamism of dialectics is maintained and the fragmentation of the life course refined. Adult development is understood as related to the mutual interpenetration of self and world and the transformation of the life structure through and orderly sequence of alternating stable periods and transitional periods. Each period takes about five years, give or take two years. With regard to age, Levinson's findings are the following: there is a most frequent age at which each period begins; there is a range of variation usually about two years above and below the average.

Discussion

Models of the life cycle attempt to make coherent the unfolding experience of individuals. But they are not without limits. I would like to point out that the regularities which they try to illustrate are not universal. For instance, Carol Gilligan (1979) has shown that Erikson's stages do not correspond to women development; she has suggested to reverse the order of identity and intimacy and consider relationships with others as a condition rather than a by-product of individual achievement. Also, contradictory results in research (Takenori, 1980; Ciaccio, 1976) would support the cultural relativity of the life cycle. It must be added that Erikson himself (1982) said that "we may well ponder the historical relativity of all development and, especially also, of all development theories".

Another argument comes from differiential aging. As Salthouse (1982) has pointed out, whereas childhood is fairly uniform mainly because of the dependancy upon adults, adults have widely varying experiences. Moreover, despite the fact that society is opening to a plurality of patterns and that it has become possible for individuals to experience a rather atypical course of life, nevertheless psychosocial periodisation continues to categorize life patterns more and more.

It appears also that a stage theory of adult life is oversimplified. Bernice L. Neugarten has advanced several reasons to this. First the time of life events is becoming less regular, age is losing its customary social meaning, and the trends are toward the fluid life cycle and age-irrelevant society. Second, the psychological themes and preoccupations reported by young, middle-aged, and older persons are recurrent ones that appear and reappear in new forms and do not follow in a single fixed order. Third, intrapsychic changes occur slowly with age and not in a regular, in-step fashion (Neugarten, 1979).

Central to my discussion however are the epistemological and social implications of the psychosocial developmental models.

First, I would suggest that the production of scientific representations provides reasons to sets of relations perceived to exist. Its intention is openly descriptive of phenomena. For instance, Levinson (1978) insist on his inductive methodology and states that theory "does not impose a template for conformity". Nevertheless, in their research on aging, Gutman and al. (1980) admit that life cycle paradigms help them interpret clinical data and see regularities which would be unnoticed otherwise. As it has been recognized in philosophy of science (Gergen, 1982; Kitchener, 1983) scientific ideas do not come only from observation. When dialectical theory (Riegel, 1975) postulates that nothing is ever stable in individuals, society or nature, it provides "ontological education" to use Gergen's expression (1982). In fact, reinvested in public knowledge, scientific models are used not only to interpret life transformation but to evaluate them. The descriptive becomes normative, it not prescriptive.

Second, sociology of knowledge has pointed out that scientific knowledge is recongized by society as something relevant for its actions (Eriksson, 1975). If we remind ourselves that childhood acquired a status around the 17th century (Ariès, 1975) and that old age was "discovered only in recent years (Erikson, 1982, p. 9), we could suppose that the theoretical fragmentation of the course of life provides arguments to support the stratification of society and reinforce the behavioral and social norms which are in any society associated with the age of individuals.

Third, the concept of development is itself normative. In fact, developmental stages imply potential and achievement, unfolding of successive transformation in one direction for which Erikson (1963, 1982) does not hesitate to use the image of the scale. Epigenesis calls for evolutive tasks but at the same time the inherent end of human development blends into the internal necessity of nature.

In conclusion, I would like to raise for discussion the implications for adult education when it borrows its views on life from the social sciences.

First, it seems that educational practice becomes bound by conventional models, tied to the past and condemned to reproduce regularities.

Second, education reinforces the monolithic pattern of the course of life and contributes to the isolation of age groups. This is particularly obvious in the ageist approach to educational programs for older adults.

Third, education sacrifices personal autonomy to social reproduction. Were I to use Habermas's categories (1976), I would say that it emphasizes its technical interests at the expense of its practical interests.

I shall argue that psychosocial representations of the life cycle fail to recognize the individual as author of his or her own life, whereas education in practice must take part in the history of individuals. Thus it appears vital for educational endeavour to expose the social function of theories in order to emancipate individuals from frozen models which may be meaningless to them and to allow for the dynamic possibility of individuals being responsible for their own lives.

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A Participatory Research Project Against Sexism

Michael Chervin

What follows is a summary of one of the three presentations held within the colloquium, «Participatory Research: Applications and Perspectives». This particular presentation was essentially a brief verbal outline of the participatory research project, followed by a twenty minute video tape. The aims of this video tape were: 1. to involve the participation of researchers within the project, other than myself, in the presentation; and 2. to concretely and visually get across some of the research/ popular education process used to carry out the project. Thus, several participants, all women, spoke about how they viewed their participation as researchers, the research process itself and the dynamics of benefit and control as it related to them personally. As well, brief segments of tape which had been videoed as part of the ongoing research process were edited to add to the overview of how the research was being carried out. This included: group discussions, group role playing, peer interviews among high school students, peer interviews among members of an Action Committee Against Sexual Harrassment at the Workplace and interviews with demonstrators/ former employees outside of a restaurant where they had been sexually harrassed. Participants of the project were involved in the editting process in so much as they exercised the power to include and exclude tape segments during the editting.

This summary of the presentation will, then, be composed of an outline of the participatory research project, followed by exerpts of those participants who spoke on the twenty minute video tape.

This presentation is based on practice, rather than theory. From an explanation of our experience, I hope that you'll be able to develop a further understanding of participatory research. Nonetheless, I will begin with a brief theoretical overview of participatory research, as synthesized by Marie Menard, of l'Université de Montréal.

In Montréal, during the winter of 1984, a group of fifteen of us from the region of Québec discussed and debated participatory research, largely from our own experiences. Marie tried to make a summary of our collective interpretation of participatory research and she succeeded with clarity:

> De toutes ces deliberations, il ressort sommairement que la recherche participative n'est pas tant un type de recherche comme elle pourrait nous le laisser croire, mais bien plus une approche democratique qui témoine par:
>
> - la valorisation de certaines attitudes et comportements
> - de son charactère éducatif (les acteurs sociaux étant experts du contenu et devenant experts du processus
> - de la nature des intervenants (nouvelle perception des rôles réciproques des partenaires à la recherche)
> - de sa spécificité (à dénoncer les injustices sociales et à lutter contre l'exploitation)
> - de son orientation (axée sur les changements d'ordre social), et
> - de la production d'un nouveau savoir collectif.

With that, let's go to the base of all participatory research: practice. Here is an overview of our particular project.

Objectives of the project:

Long term, general:

- to contribute to the active struggles of people and popular groups in the Montréal area in overcoming the oppression, dependency and suffering of a sexist, class society.

Short term, particular:

- to provide a means and structure for those people and groups within which to participate in a research/popular education process. A primary purpose of this process is to stimulate a more critical collective understanding of their problems and struggles, and further personal and collective action.
- to build a network of people and groups who are in struggles against sexism and are working towards a non-sexist, non-oppressive society, to:
  - offer each other solidarity and support as allies
  - enable a sharing of collective knowledge, experience, con-

tacts and resources
- enable and promote collective and concerted action.

- to produce an educational resource tool to promote collective analysis and action towards a non-sexist, non-exploitative society.

Methods:

- the collective planning and production of a video-tape documentary, by various people and groups involved in overcoming sexism, on their experiences
- group discussions.

Why a Video Documentary?

The planning and production of a video-tape documentary will allow:

- people and groups to collectively go through an educational process of critical (re)thinking of their experiences, problems and oppression and towards (further) action on them
- people and groups to work ultimately on a common project to create a stronger sense of solidarity, cooperation and collective empowerment among the researchers and groups
- people and popular groups to take control of a medium, learning A/V skills and demystifying the media from the monopoly of experts
- people and popular groups to learn research and popular education skills

Duration of the project:

The project is a two year commitment. We began in September 1983.

Process:

The Third Avenue Resource Center, a non-profit organization managed by a collective of three animators initiated the research process. It began with a group of ten people (two part-time animators and eight volunteers) who defined themselves as an organizing committee, and which later evolved into an advisory committee.

This committee developed the principles of the project. As reflected the committee itself, as well as going beyond it, we affirmed the participation of:

- a minimum of twice as many women to men
- men who were not macho
- popular groups
- people of various races
- people of various ethnic groups
- workers
- people who were lesbian, gay and heterosexual.

As a committee, we decided to propose ideas and take decisions using the method of consensus. We explored and defined primary themes we wanted to work on, and have in the final video. Once this was effected, the organizing committee broke down into smaller research groups. These smaller groups contacted and reached out to other people and groups, to research specific themes. Less than half-way through the duration of the project, there are nine smaller research groups, working independently on their themes/subjects and eventual scripts. Each of these research groups has one person who is a representative/contact person on the organizing committee. The research groups are working on, respectively:

- L.'s experience. L. is a Malaysian immigrant who is an independent working mother. After seeking refuge in a battered women's shelter, she decided to separate from her husband and raise her family independent of him. She has also had to counter sexual and racial discrimination at her workplace.
- Lesbian experience.
- Gay experience.
- Committee Against Sexism. This is a group of students of a Montréal high school who are educating, acting with and on behalf of other students in their school against sexism, and who are providing workshops on dealing with sexual harassment and assault for students.
- Men educating and acting against sexism, towards non-oppressive personal and societal relations.
- Groupe d'Action Contre l'Harcèlement Sexuel au Travail
- Heterosexual relationships working towards equalizing power relations

- Alienated women
- W.'s eperience. W. is a Chinese Canadian living with her working class immigrant family.

The final video documentary will likely be composed of three, thirty-minute video tapes.

From the video tape editted for the presentation, L. and W. speak about their participation, the research process and on the issues of benefit and control as it relates to themselves and the research groups:

L.: «I feel very comfortable talking about my situation with the group because I know that they understand and at anytime I can say, well, you know, 'I don't want you to use this, or do that'. Because I have to think of my kids and my husband and there are other people involved and some of them or all of them might see the end product.»

«It's an opportunity for an individual like myself to use my own experience. I think whenever you're trying to speak to a group of people, you can have someone speak on behalf of someone or say, you know, 'I knew this woman who's so and so did this and that'-- it's not the same as having someone who's actually gone through the process and so that it makes it a tool that you can really use. And I'm hoping that when we have the end product that I will be organized enough and be able to use it with women. I belong to a couple of community groups. They haven't looked at this as an issue, but I will have the opportunity to use the video and try to get some interest.»

W.: «My interest is in immigrant families. Families who've come to Canada, who's trying to make a living, who's retained certain ideas from the old country, but they're also trying to adapt to the new culture here.»

«I've learned alot. I've become aware of alot more. I learn things such as discrimination in the workplace-- all the things that I never wanted to know! How much you're paid, how you get discriminated against, sexual harassment-- before it was just theory in a book. It was cases social workers talked about. Now it's a reality. It's people who I know and who've experienced things like this and they tell me about it. I learn from it and I try to look out for it: to avoid it or what actions to take.»

«We get to talk not about what group A, or B, or group C did. We get to talk about what I've experienced. What it's like, and you can hear the feelings coming out when you're talking to someone about what he or she went through. You get to share experiences and work out something that's a solution-- a positive action.»

«I think the whole group of us are in control of the project... if all of a sudden one day we're on sexual harassment, we'll work on sexual harassment. Another day we're talking about illegal immigrants. We talk about concerns which are most evident on that particular day or that particular period of our lives. There is nobody who says, 'Hey! You've got to talk about this today!' We just bring up the issues. I think that's what I like about it the most.»

L.: What I have learned most is-- actually, I've gained self-confidence. I work with an organisation where you feel intimidated by people with fancy degrees and with alot of experience talking to large groups, and writing fifty-page reports, and so on. And what I've found here, and in fact I just mentioned it to my colleagues the other day: when I'm with this group I feel very comfortable. They accept me for who I am. I write something and it's accepted as is, and I go away feeling like, 'I can write!', 'I can speak!' And I have something to offer. And once you feel that way, you can do anything! And that's a great feeling.»

Change and Continuing Professional Education

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Abstract

The Faculty of Education, The University of Calgary, is completing its fourth year of delivering a unique continuing professional education program to teachers in the community. This paper briefly describes the In-service Project, its beginnings and its current operation. Two research endeavors have been linked to the Project. The first and most extensive research effort involves the use of the continuing professional education project as a vehicle for participatory research into microcomputer applications in social studies teaching. The second research effort is aimed at identifying and describing teachers who voluntarily enter into continuing professional education activities. The two research endeavors viewed together provide insights into the process of adopting innovations within a profession.

This paper will concern itself with the development, within the Faculty of Education, The University of Calgary, of a continuing professional education endeavor titled The In-service Project, the impact of the research of Alan Knox, Bruce Joyce and the Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education, University of Texas at Austin, on that project. Finally two research endeavors attached to The Project will be exaplained.

The University of Calgary In-service Project

> The rapid social and technological changes of the last decade have escalated the need for continuous upgrading of teaching materials, instructional activities and information services for practicing teachers. This need has surpassed the capability of professional development systems at universities which provide teachers with in-service programs in a casual and/or ancillary way since their focus is primarily in pre-service programs. The in-service programs of the future must be incorporated into the basic structure of both the schools and the Faculty of Education. Anything less will fail to meet the in-service needs of teachers in the 1980's. Effective teacher education will have to progressively become a lifelong professional activity. (Gibb, 1979)

In 1978, acting on its commitment to the principle that teacher education is a life-long professional activity, a committee was struck to spearhead the development of a substantial and readily accessible in-service teacher education program. The committee consisted of administrative representatives of the two Calgary school systems, the Calgary A.T.A. locals and the Faculty of Education.

A survey of a random sample of 700 Calgary teachers was conducted in September, 1978, in order to determine the level of interest in such a program and the aspects of pedagogy and content deemed necessary for inclusion in such a program. Study of the data from this survey indicated that:

i) teachers endorsed the concept of in-service education

ii) priorities for in-service were -

Elementary - language arts, particularly the integrated approach
Secondary - language arts, particularly writing and reading skills
All levels - motivation, special education, classroom management

iii) teachers require a range of instructional formats and delivery systems

From the results of the survey the committee determined that an effective in-service program would have to be responsive to current teacher interests and needs; include practicing teachers in the planning, delivery, and evaluation of courses, and deliver the courses in a number of ways.

In the proposal for an in-service project the Dean's committee expanded further on the need for ongoing professional education for teachers when it wrote:

> Undergraduate teacher education programs typically provide little more than a basis from which to start. Increasing emphasis on the acquisition of skills and knowledge regarding curriculum development, instructional design, and the complexity of the learning task has led to a demand for more education than is available in the normal four year program. Couple the above with the rate of change of both information and techniques available and it is apparent that a flexible on-going education is a must for today's teacher. (Gibb, 1979)

It is some measure of how profound and fast moving the changes in the educational setting have been that in this report presented in 1979 the only reference made to the challenges of the microcomputer in education are referred to non-specifically as "technological changes". Five years later it is apparent that micro-computers and the attendant information revolution may well be the most pervasive, challenging change ever faced by modern education. "In the new information society, being without computer skills is like wandering around a collection the size of the Library of Congress with all the books arranged at random..." (Naisbitt, 1984)

Using the information gained through the surveying of teachers and adding to it from the available literature of effective teacher in-service programs a set of guidelines was established which would serve to direct an in-service project within the faculty:

i) The project will directly reflect in-service education needs as defined by practicing educators;
ii) The effectiveness of the project will be defined in terms of enhancing the quality of instruction in the school systems and the Faculty of Education;
iii) The planning will be done in a cooperative manner and will provide opportunities for interaction between school based personnel and university personnel;
iv) The Faculty of Education will organize and manage the project, with a view to incorporating it as a permanent on-going activity of the Faculty;
v) The project course offerings will aggressively incorporate new developments in instructional strategies and information;
vi) The delivery of courses will be structured to complement the schedule of practicing teachers and thus maximize the participation of teachers;
vii) Course offerings will be for credit. (Gibb, 1979)

It was determined that the courses should be twenty hours in length. It would be pleasing to be able to say that this decision was based on available evidence that such a course length was appropriate to the tasks likely to be undertaken. However, the main determinant in the decision was that in The University of Calgary a full course is scheduled for eighty instructional hours. Within the Faculty of Education the most usual course length is forty hours or a half course; the twenty hour plan was a further division of the usual instructional assignment.

The courses were to make limited use of formal examinations and were to be graded Credit/Fail.

There were two concerns as the proposed courses were prepared for the routines of course approval within the university structure. The first had to do with handling the courses so that teachers could gain maximum benefit from them in terms of credentials and of salary and so that the courses could be developed quickly enough to respond to the changing needs in the schools; the second had to do with maintaining the rigour and quality of the content so that the courses would be acceptable as senior credit courses. At first it seemed that these two requirements could not both be accommodated. If there was to be adequate quality control then course outlines would seem to have to go through a committee approval process while at the same time it was doubtful if that process could be managed quickly enough to allow for the responsiveness desired for continuing professional education activities. After much discussion, and through cooperation of a number of departments within the university a solution was found. Thirteen broad course outlines (later expanded to sixteen) were approved by the appropriate university committees. These courses included such things as EDIS 501 Topics in Language Arts, EDIS 541 Topics in Classroom Analysis and Management, EDIS 525 Topics in Educational Technology, etc.(see Appendix I). As need indicated the courses were decimalized (example, EDIS 525.01 Topics in Educational Technology: Computer Literacy for Teachers I) with the course outlines going through a Faculty approval process.

It was established that the courses would be developed at the senior undergraduate level of difficulty. That decision meant that teachers completing a baccalaureate, diploma or master's degree all had some potential access to the courses in meeting program requirements. Regulations were developed that limited the number of in-service courses that could be taken for credit within a program to four. They were to be placed on the option lines within the program and because of their Credit/Fail system of grading they would not contribute to the grade point average.

The In-service Project is administered by an academic coordinator seconded from one of the local school jurisdictions. While the Faculty was moving from the pilot phase to the general operation phase of the project the research of Alan Knox became available (1980B). Dr. Knox identified "indicators of vitality" in continuing professional education endeavors undertaken by professional schools. One such indicator of vitality was the previous experience of the director of the CPE. "...the directors of CPE were heavily oriented toward professional (clinical) practice, and so were most of the small number of faculty members who worked closely with them. Most of the directors had been faculty members and/or practitioners in their field." (Knox, 1980A) This information assisted in making the decision to have a practitioner coordinate the program. It also impacted on decisions made by the coordinator as the In-service Project was made a part of the ongoing program of the Faculty of Education.

Present Operation of the Program

Early projections for faculty-sponsored in-service were four courses to be offered in the first year and twenty in the first five years. This projection indicates that the Faculty did not have a good measure of the magnitude of interest in such short, professionally oriented courses. Twenty were offered in the first term and 198 in the first three years. After four full years of operation the in-service project now offers approximately thirty courses in the fall term, forty in the winter term, five in spring and fifteen in summer session.

An attempt is made to develop courses in a wide variety of areas for teachers at all levels. However, since in-service's first guideline is that it be responsive to teacher-articulated needs some topics receive more attention than others. Approximately half the courses deal with microcomputers. With a very few exceptions these courses are designed to be of use to teachers regardless of the grade level taught. More interest is expressed in in-service by elementary teachers so more attention is given to that area. In each term an attempt is made to introduce an area of study which has not been suggested by teachers. This is done particularly in areas where teachers may not yet have enough information to describe it as a need. Such early introduction of information emerging from current research can be helpful to both teachers and faculty. Teachers receive information about developments earlier than they might otherwise do and professors have a forum to discuss the developments with seasoned practitioners - often as a prelude to introducing the new ideas into regular course content. Examples include studies in ethnomethodology, applications of videotext systems, microcomputer applications in music, technical aids for the disabled and so on.

The Faculty of Education, while accepting responsibility for playing some role as a provider of continuing professional education for teachers, recognizes that other stakeholders have responsibilities in the field as well. The various interest groups should not be seen as competitors in the market place but rather as cooperative elements in an educational enterprise. For that reason a large part of the coordinator's role is to meet with other educational officers responsible for in-service and to share with them information, ideas, plans and the results of surveys, questionnairs, etc. This facet of The In-service Project has worked well since the faculty's offerings are different from those traditionally offered by the school boards or the teachers' association.

A great deal of the in-service done by school systems is of the short, single meeting variety designed primarily to provide information. The University offers an alternative. Courses of twenty hours provide for greater in-depth work and lend themselves to models such as Bruce Joyce's:

- Study of the theoretical basis or rationale...
- Observation of demonstrations by persons who are relatively expert...
- Practice and feedback in protected conditions...
- ...coaching one another...providing companionship, helping each other...figuring out the optimal uses...and providing one another with ideas and feedback. (Joyce, Showers, 1982)

For this reason from time to time the school systems ask for a cooperative venture with the University so that an in-service course can be used to deal with the areas identified as needing indepth work in order to achieve change. Examples include introductions of new curricula such as Health, Visual Education and Food Studies or the strengthening of an area such as the elementary core French program.

Over a five year period the Faculty's situation has gone from one of being suspected of usurping the responsibility and jurisdiction of others to being seen as a partner with something specific to offer to continuing professional education.

Clients for Professional Education Within the Teaching Community

Much of what is generally accepted about the characteristics of adult learners was applied to the premises on which the In-service Project was based. It was assumed that adults are interested in learning when the learnings are practical, immediate, in a convenient time format, occurring with trusted others and with some social element involved. Every attempt was made to attend to these characteristics when establishing the guidelines which would drive the In-service Project.

When the Project was conceived not a great deal of information was known about the characteristics of teachers likely to attend continuing professional education courses. Since the beginning of the Project, however, a very useful study has been completed in the United States. This study led the Faculty of Education into one of the two research projects described next. Joyce, Yarger and Howey (1980) surveyed teachers in three American states to determine attitudes towards in-service. Their findings show that the teacher most likely to participate in in-service is female, in her 30's, having two degrees, an elementary generalist who considers teaching a long term career, and self-confident about her teaching abilities.

As The In-service Project moved from its experimental phase to being fully operational it became apparent that some ability in predicting who the client teachers were and what their needs were would be most useful in maximizing the achievement of course match to teacher interests. Most needs can be seen to be connected to change; change in curriculum, change in methodology, change in community expectation, change in teacher role, and most recently and most profoundly change in the role of the school in the new high technology information driven world.

Since the past decade has been a time when increasing attention has been given to the continuing education of teachers, it is not surprising to find that an effective model for describing the adoption of change had been developed at the Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin. (Hall, Wallace, Dossett, 1973) The model is particularly useful because change and continuing professional education are linked in the thinking of most educational decision makers. When a new curriculum or methodology is developed for the classroom it is assumed that in-service will be part of the implementation scheme. A pertinent example comes from a report presented to the Minister of Education, Alberta, concerning the introduction and implementation of computer instruction in the schools. In that report Hallworth and Brebner state, "Further courses are, however, urgently needed in the in-service program and at the undergraduate level in order that all teachers gain some knowledge of the topic, even if only at the computer literacy level." (1980)

While it is frequently assumed that an in-service activity will assist teachers to adopt an innovation or make a change little is known about the process or the role that in-service plays in it. The Concerns Based Adoption Model describes the stages that an individual teacher will go through in coping with an innovation and, used thoughtfully, it can give some direction to developers of in-service so that continuing professional education experiences are being developed to appropriately meet teacher needs.

The Concerns Based Adoption Model has several key assumptions which underlie it and influence the measures, procedures and designs of the contributing studies. The first assumption is that the implementation of an innovation is a process rather than an event. Second, the implementation of an innovation is done by individuals. The third assumption is that implementation from the individual's perspective entails development growth. Fourth, the phenomenon of different levels of use of an innovation occurs for individuals with different innovations and within different organizational contexts. Fifth, the amount of time required to implement an innovation will vary. (Hall, 1977)

Working with these assumptions extensive research was done which resulted in the development of models for Stages of Concern (SoC) and Levels of Use (LoU). When faced with an innovation (change) teachers can be expected to go through seven stages of concern over a period of time. (see Appendix II) It is possible through questionnaires, interviews and observation to discern which is the major stage of concern for a teacher at a given time. In summary the stages are:

6 Refocussing
5 Collaboration
4 Consequence
3 Management
2 Personal
1 Informational
0 Awareness

The levels of use which can to some extent be correlated with the stages of concern are:

IV Renewal
V Integration
IVB Refinement
IVA Routine
III Mechanical Use
II Preparation
I Orientation
0 Nonuse (see Appendix III)

For those responsible for the texture of a continuing professional education program these stages and levels, when applied to an innovation or change confronting teachers, can provide useful indicators for program development. For example, it is difficult to get teachers involved in the study of specific curriculum applications of microcomputers until they have allayed their own personal concerns about their competencies and the use of technology. Samples of talk that indicate the level of concern is at SoC-2 are such comments as "I'm not mechanically inclined."; "I have never been good at math."; "I don't even know how to turn the equipment on." Appropriate course content for them will have as its goal confidence and some competence in dealing with the sample operations of the equipment. Curriculum applications should be saved for a later time.

It is important for the providers of in-service to understand that no matter how experienced or competent the professional is, faced with an innovation or change, the stages of concern will still be experienced.

In attempting to understand change and its implementation by practicing teachers, it is also critical to remember that it is a process and not an event. In fact, it will take some time for a teacher to move through the stages of concern; for some it may take as long as five years and for others stage 6 will never be achieved. Given the length of the process it is important for the coordinator of in-service to at least attend to the prevailing stage of the time and plan in-service opportunities accordingly.

Payoff for the Faculty of Education in Delivering In-service

When the in-service project was begun it was expected that there would be three major payoffs:

- in-service would encourage the use of innovative instructional techniques within the faculty;
- in-service would allow the Faculty of Education, as a professional school, to maintain contact with a larger number of teachers in the field;
- in-service would allow teachers who had been away from the university for some time to re-establish contacts with the Faculty.

Only later did it become apparent that The In-service Project might serve as a research vehicle. With the encouragement from the Dean of Education consideration was given to the possibilities for in-service-linked research.

It was decided that initially there were two obvious possibilities; the first would use the in-service courses as a means to conduct research into questions of concern within the school/teaching community, the second was to do investigations centred on the in-service project itself.

In-service as a Research Vehicle

In May, 1983 work was begun on two research endeavours - one in each of the areas described above. Both of the investigations had within them the premise that in-service could indeed play a role in either bringing about change or supporting the adoption of change within the educational community.

The first, and most extensive project, was devised to involve a number of teachers as co-researchers into possible applications of microcomputers in elementary social studies. University representatives on the research team were drawn from the departments of Curriculum and Instruction and Geography and were joined by the coordinator of in-service. Twelve teachers of grades one, two, three and four from four school districts volunteered to join the research team.

The hypothesis to be tested by the research group was "Microcomputers can be effectively used in the teaching of mapping skills to young children".

In-service courses were used as a means of conducting each part of the research. The first course was equivalent to a literature search and state of the art review. The second course was used to advance the researchers' knowledge of microcomputers to the point where they could begin to apply their knowledge of mapping skills to computer use. In the third course the researchers developed the strategies to be used in gathering data in their classrooms and taught a mapping skills unit to their students. In the final course the researchers compiled and analyzed the data collected in all the classrooms and drew some preliminary conclusions about the efficacy of computer use in teaching mapping skills to young students. (deLeeuw, Waters, Rogers, 1983)

The second, and less ambitious investigation, was an attempt to describe the profile of the usual participant in a university sponsored in-service course. The information thus gathered would have several uses; first it would serve to confirm or raise questions about the Joyce, Yarger, Howey research; second, used with the Concerns Based Adoption Model it would give some indication as to the stage of concern that a teacher is likely to be experiencing when they voluntarily take such courses and, finally armed with that information some additional direction for selection of in-service topics could be gained.

The participant profile was developed by asking all fall in-service registrants for help in developing the profile. Those who volunteered were given a short questionnaire focussed on demographic information when they began their course, a short questionnaire focussed on their perceptions of course quality and appropriateness at the end of the course and a third questionnaire dealing with knowledge transfer and attitude changes three months after the course was complete. (see Appendicies IV, V, VI)

Findings

If The In-service Project of the Faculty of Education, The University of Calgary, is to be of real value in the life of the educational community it must address itself not just to quality and excellence in teaching, but to the changes that will bring this about. Change is a process not an event and is not likely to be precipitated by a single happening. It is therefore, foolhardy to assume that one course, one in-service endeavour, or one professional development activity will, in and of itself, achieve change. On the other hand any good program will be part of the process by which change occurs.

Microcomputer Graphics Project

In the Microcomputer Graphics Project an attempt was made to involve teachers in the very early preparation of information to be shared with other teachers. The information this generated could be used by teachers to change their traditional instruction of mapping skills and to identify ways to incorporate microcomputers into regular classroom situations.

A further goal of the project was to develop in a group of teacher leaders the ability to see themselves as researchers, to be more trusting - and more critical - of the research process as an input to change and to be initiators of investigations in their own school settings. As Roby Kidd said at the Conference on Continuing Professional Education in the 80's, "Already there have been significant increases in the amount and quality of research affecting professional service. Practitioners will need to learn how to understand and apply such research, to become consumers of research." (Kidd, 1980) The Microcomputer Graphics Project hopes to have teachers be not only consumers of research but developers of research.

No formal evaluation of this project has yet been written but some preliminary judgements are available. The teachers are prepared to say that an interactive use of microcomputers, such as that that can be achieved with the use of the language LOGO, can play an important role in the development of basic concepts necessary for student success in mapping. The university personnel on the research team are in agreement with teachers in this early conclusion although they know that a great deal more work in verification and documentation is yet to be done.

They have also watched the teacher-researchers go through a compressed version of CBAM and have made these preliminary observations of that process: (please note that CBAM instruments were not used to document these developments)

0 Awareness: This can be seen as the stage at which the teachers expressed some interest in volunteering to be a part of the group.

1 Information: Both the teachers and the university personnel saw a great need for information sharing but there was evident dissatisfaction from teachers when the professors did not know all the answers.

2 Personal Concerns: At the point where an attempt was first made to treat the group as a wholly colleagial decision-making group there was a good deal of resistance from teachers. The attitude was one of having professors make decisions while they would perform as students and do as they were told.

3 Management: Towards the end of the first twenty hour segment the teachers began to indicate that the information being accumulated was unmanageable. They expressed the need to have someone else provide them with the materials and then they would teach a unit to their students. They rejected the task of sorting through the wide range of materials to select those that they would use with their students.

4 Consequences: During the second twenty hour segment when the teachers and professors began to acquire the necessary microcomputer skills there was a perceptible shift in attention to what all of this might mean to their students. The teachers became more and more enthusiastic about introducing the concepts to their students, they began to select from among the earlier identified concepts and activities that would be most appropriate to

their students and they began to share in the decisions necessary for the management of the group.

5 Colleagiality: As they prepared for the last round of meetings during which the teachers shared the results of the data gathering done in their own classrooms there was evidence of increased confidence. There was not only a willingness but an enthusiasm for the discussion and the presentation of their findings.

6 Refocussing: The research group has already begun to discuss how the project might be repeated with appropriate modifications. There is some sense that goals and expectations were too high at the beginning of the project and that contributed to some feelings of frustration and inadequacy. The group has definite plans for ways to extend and enhance the collected activities and methodologies with a view to the eventual publication of a guidebook for teachers interested in using microcomputers as a teaching component in the development of mapping skills in young children.

It is not to be denied that a great many other events are occurring to course teachers to give serious attention to microcomputer applications in the classroom. It is essential then to see this participatory research project as just one happening in a process that will, over time, mean change in classroom practice. However, it must also be noted that for this group of teachers, and for others with whom they have regular contact this research has caused growth and enhancement of current practices - in short CHANGE. (Yet even with the encouragement, proding and cajoling of the professors this process has taken an intensive fourteen months.)

In addition it has been shown, to the satisfaction of one group of university professors, that The In-service Project can be used as a vehicle for research and for achieving change. When the Microcomputer Graphics Project is fully described it is expected that others will be interested in using the model in areas where participatory research would be appropriate. One professor has already indicated an interest in using the Project model as a means of identifying the most effective teaching methods for achieving positive self-concept in young children.

Participant Profile

The second research endeavour, directed at the development of a participant profile of those who voluntarily enrol in in-service has, in large measure, mirrored the findings of Joyce, Yarger and Howey described earlier in this paper.

One hundred and thirteen registrants in university in-service courses agreed to assist in the development of a participant profile. They did this by completing three questionnaires at specified times during the fall and winter term.

The typical in-service participant at The University of Calgary is likely to be female (3:1) with a median teaching experience of nine years. If the participant is female she is most likely to be an elementary school teacher while male participants are more likely to come from the secondary schools and/or administration. Most have two degrees and see teaching as a lifetime profession. The participants' perceptions of their teaching abilities and evaluation of the vigour of their careers was most positive. On ten point scales for teaching abilities (adequate to excellent) and career vigour (stagnant to vigorous) none placed themselves below the midpoint of the scale. (Rogers, Black, 1984)

This positive view of ability and career vigour suggests that those who voluntarily enrol in in-service are beyond personal or management concerns in the Concerns Based Adoption Model.

When asked to indicate the reasons for enrolling in in-service, participants cited desire to improve their teaching skills (LoU: Refinement), general professionalism (SoC: Collaboration) and an interest in new ideas, and upgrading existing knowledge. Few of the participants indicated need for simple information as a reason for taking an in-service course.

In the second questionnaire a key question dealt with the opportunities or need for teacher-to-teacher sharing of ideas within the course. Since approximately half of the courses in the survey term were microcomputer courses and since these were advertised as courses to familiarize teachers with the operation of a microcomputer, it would be reasonable to predict that a significant number of participants would indicate that the sharing of ideas was unnecessary. This suggests that teachers who voluntarily enrol in in-service are at a Stage of Concern that focusses on collaboration.

The third questionnaire, sent to respondents three months after the completion of the course, was designed to gather information about transfer of knowledge or skills to their own classroom setting. In other words, did the in-service course make any contribution to change? After tabulating the responses it is possible to conclude that for most participants they remember many but not all the issues raised in their course; for most there was some change in their self-concept and for the majority there was either no change or only some change in their perceptions of the teaching profession. The question of transfer to classroom suggests that at least three of every four participants found some use for the course content in their classroom practice.

Written comments to question 1b (questionnaire 3) relating to change in their perceptions of themselves as teachers were most interesting. Twenty-one noted that in-service had, through competency, improved and/or reassured their confidence in themselves while seven noted either the competency of other teachers or increased awareness of professional responsibility. Ten noted an awareness of areas needing improvement or felt challenged to learn more. Twelve remarked on the changing future of the school and improved classroom practice.

The last of the combined rating questions asked the fundamental question about application of learnings to the classroom. For the most part the written responses added substance to the ratings. Responses fell into three basic categories: direct use or experimentation with the new idea; not using because unsuited to the classroom situation and/or lack of equipment and increased awareness and/or an intention to use at some future date.

By doing a careful reading of the questionnaire responses it is possible to begin to generalize about the stages of concern and levels of use of teachers who voluntarily enrol in in-service courses. While some are at personal and management Stages of Concern more are wondering about consequence and collaboration (even while continuing to experience some personal concerns). It seems, however, that personal and management concerns are not likely to drive teachers into university in-service courses and so it would be inappropriate to develop courses focussed on those stages. Rather it is appropriate to be sensitive to these concerns in the overall development of in-service experiences.

It also seems that even while participants in in-service courses are at the preparation Level of Use they are also considering integration of the innovation. This observation suggests that any course that deals with practicalities without discussing larger questions of pedagogy and methodology would not be well received by the participant group.

It is possible to generalize that those who take in-service of this duration and magnitude are teachers that are recognized as the innovators by those conversant with both the Joyce and CBAM models. The innovators are those teachers who enjoy change, find it exciting and challenging; the fifteen percent that are receptive to change in the work place.

This evidence seems to leave planners of in-service with two possible challenges:

1) develop courses that will satisfy the needs of this innovator group and attempt to enhance opportunities for the multiplier effect within their schools;

2) develop courses that will appeal to those who have not previously seen in-service as a means to deal with their own stages of concern or the levels at which they are using a new innovation.

Summary

During the past four years the Faculty of Education, The University of Calgary, has firmly established an in-service project which makes a valuable contribution to the continuing professional education activities of teachers in the community. In addition it has demonstrated that research endeavors can be attached to continuing professional education activities in ways that are profitable to both researchers and teachers.

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Appendices

Appendix I	Educational In-service Courses
Appendix II	Stages of Concern chart
Appendix III	Levels of Use Chart
Appendix IV	Questionnaire One
Appendix V	Questionnaire Two
Appendix VI	Questionnaire Three

Appendix I

Educational In-service Course Numbers

501	Topics in the Teaching of Language Arts
505	Topics in Curriculum and Instruction
509	Topics in the Teaching of Mathematics
511	Topics in the Teaching of Science
513	Topics in Social Studies
515	Topics in Music
525	Topics in Educational Technology
527	Educational Policy Studies
533	Topics in Religious and Moral Education
535	Topics in Educational Administration
541	Topics in Evaluation of Instruction
547	Topics in Classroom Analysis and Management
549	Topics in Special Education
551	Topics in Educational Psychology
553	Topics in Computer Applications
559	Topics in Early Childhood Education

APPENDIX II

STAGES OF CONCERN:
TYPICAL EXPRESSIONS OF CONCERN ABOUT THE INNOVATION

	STAGES OF CONCERN	EXPRESSIONS OF CONCERN
IMPACT	6 REFOCUSING	I HAVE SOME IDEAS ABOUT SOMETHING THAT WOULD WORK EVEN BETTER.
	5 COLLABORATION	I AM CONCERNED ABOUT RELATING WHAT I AM DOING WITH WHAT OTHER INSTRUCTORS ARE DOING.
	4 CONSEQUENCE	HOW IS MY USE AFFECTING KIDS?
TASK	3 MANAGEMENT	I SEEM TO BE SPENDING ALL MY TIME IN GETTING MATERIAL READY.
SELF	2 PERSONAL	HOW WILL USING IT AFFECT ME?
	1 INFORMATIONAL	I WOULD LIKE TO KNOW MORE ABOUT IT.
	0 AWARENESS	I AM NOT CONCERNED ABOUT IT (THE INNOVATION).

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APPENDIX III

LEVELS OF USE OF THE INNOVATION:
TYPICAL BEHAVIORS

	LEVEL OF USE		BEHAVIORAL INDICES OF LEVEL
USER	VI	RENEWAL	THE USER IS SEEKING MORE EFFECTIVE ALTERNATIVES TO THE ESTABLISHED USE OF THE INNOVATION.
	V	INTEGRATION	THE USER IS MAKING DELIBERATE EFFORTS TO COORDINATE WITH OTHERS IN USING THE INNOVATION.
	IVB	REFINEMENT	THE USER IS MAKING CHANGES TO INCREASE OUTCOMES.
	IVA	ROUTINE	THE USER IS MAKING FEW OR NO CHANGES AND HAS AN ESTABLISHED PATTERN OF USE.
	III	MECHANICAL USE	THE USER IS MAKING CHANGES TO BETTER ORGANIZE USE OF THE INNOVATION.
NONUSER	II	PREPARATION	THE USER IS PREPARING TO USE THE INNOVATION.
	I	ORIENTATION	THE USER IS SEEKING OUT INFORMATION ABOUT THE INNOVATION.
	0	NONUSE	NO ACTION IS BEING TAKEN WITH RESPECT TO THE INNOVATION.

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Appendix IV
Questionnaire One

In-service Participant Profile

1. I am ______ Male ______ Female

2. I have been teaching ______ 1 year ______ 6 to 10 years
______ 2 to 5 years ______ 11 years or more

3. I am teaching in ______ a city (25,000 or more)
______ a town (5,000 or more)
______ a village
______ other (specify) ______________________________

4. I am presently ______ teaching grade(s) ______________
______ working as an administrator
______ working as a specialist, consultant
______ substitute teaching
______ not teaching
______ other (specify) ______________________________

5. I have my
______ Alberta teaching certificate
______ B.Ed.
______ B.A.
______ B.Sc.
______ diploma
______ M.A.
______ M.Ed.
______ other (specify) ______________

6. I am actively planning to extend my credentials by completing a
______ diploma
______ M.Ed.
______ M.A.
______ At this time I have no plans to extend my credentials
______ other (specify) ______________________________

7. I consider teaching to be
______ a stepping-stone to some other profession
______ a temporary employment
______ my lifetime profession

PLEASE TURN OVER TO COMPLETE THE LAST THREE QUESTIONS

8. I consider my teaching abilities to be (please circle)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
adequate excellent

9. Careers often go through stages of vigour and stagnation. I consider my career at this time to be

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
stagnant vigorous

10. I have enrolled in an in-service course because

Appendix V
Questionnaire Two

1. The university in-service course I just completed was my

______ first

______ second

______ third

______ fourth

______ other (specify) ______________________________

2. I found the level of the course material

______ too low

______ too high

______ about right

______ exactly right

3. The relevance of the material to my interests was

1 2 3 4
low high

4. I found the effectiveness of the instructional method to be

1 2 3 4
low high

5. My sense of satisfaction upon completion of the course is

1 2 3 4
low high

6. I found that the opportunities within the course to share ideas with other teachers was

______ unnecessary

______ limited

______ adequate

______ satisfactory

______ substantial

7. The possibility that I will use knowledge/insights gained in this course in my own teaching is

1 2 3 4
low high

8. Were there any significant gaps in the course content?

____

____

____

Appendix VI

Questionnaire Three

1. Indicate the extent to which

a) you remember issues discussed in your fall in-service course

1	2	3	4	5
none	a little	some	a good deal	a great deal

b) taking the fall in-service affected your view of yourself as a teacher

1	2	3	4	5
none	a little	some	a good deal	a great deal

Explain ____

____

c) taking the fall in-service affected your view of the teaching profession

1	2	3	4	5
none	a little	some	a good deal	a great deal

Explain ____

____

d) you are using knowledge/skills acquired in the fall in-service in your regular teaching

1	2	3	4	5
none	a little	some	a good deal	a great deal

Explain ____

____

PLEASE TURN OVER TO COMPLETE THE LAST FOUR QUESTIONS

2. Has attendance at a university in-service changed your plans for your own further education? ______________________________

How? ______________________________

____

3. Did attendance at a university in-service course change your opinion of the Faculty of Education? ______________ How? ____________

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4. Would you recommend university in-service courses to colleagues?

____________ Why/why not? ______________________________

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5. After a period of time for reflection what observations would you make about the experience of taking an in-service course? ______________

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THE LEADERSHIP FUNCTION OF GOVERNMENT

The Case of Adult Education in British Columbia 1976-1983

Gordon Selman

In the period 1976 to 1983, the provincial Ministry of Education in British Columbia exercised leadership in moulding the adult education services of the public system to an extent, and in ways unprecedented in the history of the province. The purpose of this paper is to examine the nature of those interventions, against the background of the educational system of B.C., and to consider the factors which have had an impact on these developments.

Background

The province of British Columbia has for many decades had one of the most active adult education enterprises in Canada. The private and voluntary sector took the lead in the early years, as in most societies, but after early experiments in Vancouver and changes in the Public Schools Act in 1910, the public sector began its active role in the field. By the 1950s, the school boards of British Columbia led the way in all of Canada in adult education and the University of British Columbia had one of the most outstanding extension programs in North America (Selman, 1980). The education system in B.C., as elsewhere, experienced explosive growth in the 1960s and 1970s, a system of community colleges and post-secondary institutes being launched, a provincial institute of technology and two additional public universities being established, all of which moved vigorously into the provision of educational services to adults. Participation studies in the sixties and seventies consistently showed British Columbia at the top nationally in terms of the percentage of citizens who took part annually in adult education.

The Department (now the Ministry) of Education has had an official responsible for adult education in the public system since 1913. This task (which consisted initially of simply supervising the grants in support of school board "night schools") was given only part-time supervision over the years until 1962, when the first full-time officer for this area was appointed, but still in a very junior capacity in the department. There was vigorous and effective leadership provided at times, however, especially during the desperate years of the Depression, when the Minister of the day was a strong supporter of the work (Selman, 1976); in the early fifties, when the foundations were laid for the rapid expansion of the programs conducted by the school boards of the province (Wales, 1958); and during the sixties, when the school boards and colleges were expanding their services rapidly (Cartier, 1970). With the exception of the depression years, however, the approach throughout on the part of the Department was to encourage the public institutions to play an active part in the field, the Department providing supporting grants but leaving the leadership of the system generally in the hands of the institutions--school boards, colleges and institutes and universities. This state of affairs changed in large measure in 1976-77 and led to a period of more interventionist government leadership.

The Scene and the Actors - 1975-76

Late in 1975, the New Democratic Party government led by David Barrett was defeated at the polls. Although that government had generally been very innovative in social policy, it had taken few initiatives specifically in adult education. It had expanded the community college system and all parts of the province were brought within the service areas of the 14 colleges.

Dr. Patrick McGeer, a member of the Faculty of Medicine at U.B.C., became the Minister of Education in the new Social Credit government of William Bennett. McGeer was an innovator. He was concerned that the educational system of the province, especially the post-secondary sector, be made more accessible to people outside the larger centres in the southwest corner (where the universities and several other provincial institutions were located) and he was both attracted to the new media technologies to do this and generally open to new ideas in this connection. He appointed as his Deputy Minister Dr. Walter Hardwick, a man with wide public experience and many of the same sympathies. This leadership team was ready to act and open to new ideas.

In the closing months of the former government's tenure, they employed in the Ministry (initially an assistant to a shortlived "Commissioner of Education"), Dr. Ron Faris. He had a doctoral degree in adult education and was an experienced civil servant, having previously been one of the chief architects of the innovative policies on community colleges and the educational use of media, in the province of Saskatchewan. Faris's services were retained and his experience valued by the new leadership team in the Ministry. He was, for an interim period, named Superintendent of Communications. Faris was a social democrat by political conviction, a position at odds with the dominant view of the conservative government for which he found himself working, but so long as the Minister and Deputy had confidence in him and gave him the authority and resources to develop his ideas, those differences of view were not unduly troublesome. His view of the role of government, however, was strikingly different from that of the party in power; he believed that it was government's responsibility to lead, not just be a referee among other forces in society.

The third major factor in the situation was the public educational system itself. The point has been made that the public system in B.C. was extremely active in adult education. The enterprise had been built up over several decades, with a high level of energy, innovation and entrepreneurial skill. The continuing development of the college system in the decade 1965-75 had injected new personnel and resources into the field. Some school boards had turned their adult education programs over to the college serving their area. In the year 1975-76, 31 boards maintained programs and had approximately 141,000 registrations during the year. The 14 colleges, some of them very new, had 98,000 registrations, and that total was going up rapidly from year to year. The adult education programs of the public institutions in the province were large and growing rapidly, so the impact of new leadership in the system was potentially considerable. And there were also several provincial organizations of adult educators, useful networks of communication over and above the official channels within the system (Selman, 1983).

Avenues of Leadership

Before the new government had been many months in office, McGeer and Hardwick launched three major inquiries into aspects of the field, one on the delivery of university programs to the non-metropolitan areas of the province, one on technical and vocational education, and one on adult and community education. The intention at the outset, according to Deputy Minister Hardwick, was to establish a comprehensive Post-Secondary Training Act which would govern the whole system, with separate, subsidiary acts on each element of the system, including an Adult Education Act (Cassidy, 1982). The recommendations from these three studies were to provide input into the draft legislation. This comprehensive plan was never implemented, but it is clear that the study of adult education did incorporate a number of recommendations which were implemented subsequently.

Given his academic qualifications and his considerable bureaucratic experience, Dr. Faris was a logical choice as chairman of the committee to study adult education services. Following the completion of the committee's work, he was appointed Executive Director of a newly created Continuing Education Division within the Ministry. As a result, adult education was accorded more visibility and a higher level of representation within the Ministry than it had ever had before.

Over the years since his appointment as Executive Director in 1977, Faris has given leadership to this Division. Utilizing the authority inherent in his appointment, the resources made available to him, the influence and powers of persuasion he could bring to bear and the ideas and professional skill he had developed, Faris and the team of colleagues he built up had a major impact on the adult education services provided by the public sector. While not all of their activities can be described here, some will be referred to, under seven headings.

1. Policy Development

Although the public system in B.C. had for many years been active in the field of adult education, there was little in the way of clearly articulated policy in this area. The committee which Faris chaired was designed in part to produce recommendations in this area. The committee conducted its affairs in a way designed to encourage public input. It prepared a discussion paper which identified the issues, held public hearings throughout the province and received 199 submissions from organizations and individuals. The committee reported in December of 1976 and called for a general strengthening of the organizational and policy base for adult and lifelong education in the Ministry. In addition, a number of priority tasks and needs were identified which formed something of an agenda for the Continuing Education

Division in the years to follow (Cassidy, 1982).

After Faris took office as Executive Director of the Division, he set about working on certain priority areas. He recruited committees from the field and appointed an expert practitioner to write what was termed a "Discussion Paper" on each topic, the purpose being to document needs, recommend government action and raise the consciousness of the field. Such treatment was given to the following areas: adult basic education, English as a seond language, non-traditional programs for women, women's access centres, family learning activities, and the educational needs of the elderly and of single parent families.

Although the Faris Committee report had called for a statutory high level committee on adult education, the end result was instead an Advisory Committee to the Deputy Minister. It met first in 1978 and several times a year since. Some of its activities will be described below.

Arising out of a conference held in 1979, which was jointly sponsored by the Ministry, the latter launched a policy development process which was intended, at long last, to provide a solid policy base for the role of both the Ministry and the public institutions in adult education. A process was established whereby the Advisory Committee would prepare an initial draft, this would be sent out to the field for comment, and then the Ministry officials would draw up a final version, which was issued as Ministry policy--or so it was thought. This procedure was followed in subsequent months for three major statements, one on overall policy for the field, one on the community and general interest sector, and one on adult basic education (including ESL as well). By the time the third of these was issued in August of 1980, both McGeer and Hardwick were about to move on to other responsibilities and when the new Minister was asked about the ABE policy statement, his reply, to the astonishment of all concerned, was that these documents were not really statements of government policy but statements issued by Ministry officials. Subsequent clarification indicated that the first two policy statements were endorsed as acceptable but the third, on ABE, because of its financial implications, would have to be put through a newly created Ministry policy approval process. It then took almost two further years to get action on the matter. The "policy" which was eventually released was a watered down version of the original and even then, it was released with a covering letter which indicated that because of fiscal restraint, these recommendations could not yet be implemented but should be looked upon as desirable guidelines rather than policy. Thus, by March of 1982, it was apparent that any serious attempt at policy development in this field was ended.

2. Developing the C.E. Division's Capacity for Leadership

Based on Faris's convictions concerning the actively interventionist role to be played by government in the development of the system, and with the support of the Ministry leadership, adult education had been upgraded to Divisional status and Faris was able to emply a supporting staff of professionals. From having one junior employee, adult education was elevated in status and staffed with four full-time professionals, plus several other specialists seconded full time by institutions in the system. Thus the capacity for leadership, for influencing and developing the system, was greatly increased.

Faris's methods of operation extended the leadership capacity of the Division in other ways. He and his colleagues developed a network of personal relationships in the field which was used effectively to influence professional and institutional behavior. In addition, they were skilful in calling on the services of other institutions and organizations. By making relatively modest grants available to other bodies, they elicited very considerable assistance with projects directed at the improvement of the field. While some institutions came to be somewhat wary of these arrangements, the "burden" was astutely distributed around the system and much good work resulted which otherwise would have been beyond the means of the Continuing Education Division.

3. The Continuing Education Projects Fund

As new funds became available to adult education, beginning in 1977, not all of them were put into the traditional supporting grants to the institutions because it was felt that this would likely result in the institutions, in the main, continuing to serve the people they had always served and not devising new means of reaching and serving disadvantaged groups. Therefore a C.E. Projects Fund was established, with a quota allotted to each college district. Colleges (and school boards, where applicable) were invited to request funds for projects which were innovative and promised to provide more effective service for priority groups. The fund consisted of only $117,000 in the trial year, 1977-78, but was built up to $500,000 in subsequent years. Many worthwhile projects were created as a result and special efforts were made, by means of biennial directories of such projects and circulation of project reports, to inform the rest of the system of successful innovations. In the years during which it was funded at a reasonable level (it was cut back severely in 1983) the Division's continuing education project system produced many beneficial results and gained considerable recognition in the educational community across Canada for both its basic concept and the innovations in the province which it made possible.

4. Promoting Provision for Priority Groups

Given a commitment on the part of Faris and his colleagues, and to some extent the Minister and his Deputy as well, to filling the gaps in the service, the problem became one of influencing the behavior of the system, without at the same time becoming overbearing and diminishing initiative at the local and institutional level. The strategy for doing this was carried out on several fronts. First of all, the activities of the Faris Committee in 1976 were conducted in such a way as to elicit responses by, and on behalf of a wide of those most in need of better provision. The final report of the Committee identified many of these needs and thereby provided a guide for future activity. Many of the research and professional development activities were aimed at documenting the unmet needs and bringing them to the attention of practitioners. The Discussion Papers described earlier were intended in part to show both Ministry officials and practitioners the nature and scope of educational needs in the several areas studied. And the methods employed in carrying out these studies, with substantial input from committees from the field, were calculated not only to provide knowledgable information but also to animate and activate those special groups and those working on their behalf. The project system described above was directed particularly at the priority target areas. Perhaps most important of all, Faris added staff to his team who could spend much or all of their time providing services to practitioners in these areas, organizing workshops, conducting in-service development, developing new curricula, publishing newsletters, and other support work.

By all these means, the Continuing Education Division sought to influence instituional provision and community demand for effective service in areas of special need. The top priority areas on which much of this activity was concentrated were adult basic education (literacy, life skills and high school completion), English as a seond language and adult special education (services for handicapped persons). In each of these areas, the full range of strategies described above was brought to bear. Some other areas which received special attention included education for women and for older persons, the special needs of single parent and poverty level families, citizenship education and community development, and services to rural and isolated persons.

5. Data Collection and Research

As a foundation for policy development, a means of gaining recognition for the field and as one way of documenting educational need, Faris and his colleagues put considerable stress on data collection and research activity. Data collection and publication about the field were transformed, with annual "Continuing Education Data" publications being produced. For most of the period, annual directories of the adult education activities of provincial ministries and crown corporations were published. Directories of personnel in the field and of publications of the Ministry were issued. A Division newsletter, and for some of the time, specialized ones on ABE and ESL, were published.

The Division also carried out research, usually by contracting to have it done, on topics of special interest. Many of these studies were carried out as part of the strategy of promoting increased attention to certain needs. The discussion paper series already mentioned were examples of this, but other specially commissioned reports on such topics as social indicators, the single parent family and teaching resources were also published.

6. In-Service Professional Development for Practitioners

A great deal of effort was devoted to influencing and improving the practice of personnel within the public system who were in charge of adult education. Activities included regular conferences of administrators, workshops for teachers and other specialists, curriculum development in strategic areas, newsletters, and the production (under contract) of manuals of practice on teaching adults, program planning and community needs analysis.

7. Response to the Economic Depression

The general effects of the depression, and the resulting fiscal restraint measures, will be dealt with below. In policy terms, the Continuing Education Division was instructed to avoid activities which would result in fresh demands on Ministry resources. The major exception to this was the sponsorship by the Division beginning in mid-1982 of the "Adult Education Consortium on Economic Dislocation". Colleges and school districts serving areas where the unemployment level was particularly high were invited to confer, and they formally constituted the consortium. It was understood that the C.E. Division would assist with their activities and would make possible the part-time assistance of a skilled community worker. The consortium produced several publications, including its newsletter, Tough Times News, which first appeared in December, 1982, and a resource kit for adult educators (Clague, 1983) containing ideas for projects which might be used in the local community. The consortium and its activities, which came about as a result of the Division's leadership, have been studied by several other provinces and have received wide recognition in the field for their innovative and appropriate response to the present conditions.

Other Ministry Initiatives

In addition to the foregoing activities of the Continuing Education Division, the Ministry of Education carried out certain policy initiatives which were closely related. Major activities were launched in the field of distance education. Two new institutions were created: the Open Learning Institute, which provides correspondence instruction in three fields, vocational-technical, ABE and university programs; and the Knowledge Network of the West, a television network (utilizing satellite communication) which carries both open and closed educational television services throughout the province.

The other projects deserving of mention had a closer link to the work of the Division. Reference has been made to the efforts of the Division to meet the needs of women, handicapped persons and those in need of adult basic education. In each of those areas, the Ministry took steps designed to augment the other activities. In the case of services to women and to handicapped persons, earmarked funds were provided to each of the colleges for some years to enable them to staff special services for these two groups. In the field of adult basic education, the Ministry established a special bursary program for potential ABE students who needed financial assistance in order to begin or continue their studies.

The Impact of Fiscal Restraint

Severely limiting measures have been taken by the Ministry in recent months which have had serious impact on the work of the Division. The present government is exercising a policy of fiscal restraint and of downsizing the public sector. Budget cuts in the Division have forced reductions in grants for adult education to school boards and colleges, the seconded specialists who have worked with the Division have been let go, the special projects fund has been decimated, the Division's newsletter has been discontinued, the Advisory Committee has been reduced in membership and can meet less often, and the discretionary funds available for all purposes have been largely removed. At the time of writing, it has been announced that the Division itself is being downgraded to a branch within the Ministry and two of the four core staff removed. It seems abundantly clear that the creative period of leadership from the Ministry in this field is over. Indeed the Ministry has declared that it intends to reduce its role and influence in continuing education.

Policy Issues

One of the most arresting aspects of the leadership provided by government through the Continuing Education Division in the period 1976 to 1983 was that it was uncharacteristic of the overall policy of the Social Credit government. From one point of view it would be accurate to say that in the current period of fiscal restraint, the government's priorities have become more focused and strictly enforced, and have "caught up with" what in some respects was an aberation in the behavior of the Social Credit administration. The Social Credit government is generally seen to be a conservative, if not an ultra-conservative one, which returned to power in late 1975 in clear opposition to the social democratic NDP administration which preceded it. And yet the role of the Continuing Education Division from 1976 to 1983 was one of strong government leadership and social intervention, one more characteristic of a social democratic philosophy than a conservative one.

The explanation lies in the readiness of Drs. McGeer and Hardwick to support innovation and intervention in the interests of improving the effectiveness and outreach of the system, and in the convictions of Dr. Faris, the Executive Director of the Division. He believed in the leadership role of government and in what E.H. Carr has termed "the strong remedial state"(Carr, 1951). Faris frequently quoted the works of John Lowe and the O.E.C.D. with respect to the role of the public authority. As Lowe has put it (Lowe, 1975, p.160)

> Only the state is in the position to take the overall view, to determine norms of provision, to locate gaps and see that they are filled, to encourage research and development and to exercise regulatory supervision.

Faris was a strong believer in the leadership role of government and skilful in using the influence and resources available to him in moulding the system in what he saw to be desirable directions, generally to provide more effective service to disadvantaged groups in society. This he had the resources and policy support to do, so long as the McGeer-Hardwick team was at the head of the Ministry.

With their departure in 1980, however, the picture began to change. The incident involving the ABE policy statement, described above, was one of the first signs. With the onslaught of fiscal restraint in the social services areas of government, which began in 1982 and continues to the present, the Social Credit government launched a campaign of cutting social services and enforcing, or imposing more strictly on all aspects of government, their conservative political philosophy. Without a leadership team in the Ministry inclined to support initiatives in adult education, the Continuing Education Division was all the more vulnerable to the forces at work and has fallen victim to them.

With the changes currently taking place, it appears that the position of adult education in the public service, in terms of its scope for leadership and resources available to it, has fallen back to a position not unlike what it was some ten or fifteen years ago. Leadership in the system is devolving back upon the educational institutions. And adult education will have to rely more than ever before on the enrolment or market economy, to the detriment of more disadvantaged citizens. A source of initiative and innovation for the improvement of adult education services in the public system which had accomplished much and was appreciated and admired by many in B.C. and in other parts of Canada, has been largely destroyed.

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MANIFESTATIONS DE META-APPRENTISSAGE EN SITUATION D'AUTODIDAXIE

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Tel que le soulignaient Mocker et Spear (1982), le domaine d'étude portant sur l'apprentissage auto-géré (self-directed learning) est en pleine évolution. Si les recherches initiées principalement par Tough dans les années '70 mettaient en lumière l'étendue du phénomène autodidacte et les principales caractéristiques des projets d'apprentissage auto-gérés, les recherches des années '80, elles, abordent déjà le phénomène sous de nouveaux angles. On retrouve, par exemple, tel que le signalent Mocker et Spear (1982), des études portant sur les caractéristiques des autodidactes (Guglielmino, 1977), sur certaines habiletés pouvant faciliter le processus d'apprentissage auto-géré (Cross, 1978; Kasworm, 1977); on avance déjà certains éléments pouvant conduire à l'élaboration d'une théorie de l'apprentissage autonome (Penland, 1981) et l'on a recours de plus en plus à une méthodologie d'ordre qualitatif (Tough, Abbey et Orton, 1980; Brookfield, 1981; Leean et Sisco, 1981).

La présente recherche, entreprise par le GRAAME (Groupe de recherche sur l'apprentissage autonome en milieux éducatifs)[1], s'inscrit dans l'ordre des préoccupations apparues dans les années '80 par rapport à l'étude de l'apprentissage auto-géré. L'angle abordé ici est celui des pratiques éducatives d'individus et de groupes autodidactes. La première phase d'une démarche devant contribuer à enrichir la théorie de l'apprentissage adulte a permis d'analyser les diverses fonctions propres à une démarche autodidactique[2] et a utilisé une méthodologie d'ordre qualitatif. L'ensemble des données recueillies auprès d'individus autodidactes lors de cette première phase ont permis de dégager certaines fonctions caractérisées tant par des actions que par des réflexions propres à une démarche d'apprentissage autodidactique.

QUESTION DE RECHERCHE

Les réflexions ou pratiques réflexives qui ont été dégagées des données recueillies auprès d'autodidactes, laissaient clairement entrevoir que les sujets avaient eu des formes d'*insights* leur permettant de comprendre, au-delà de la stricte description d'une réalité, certaines dimensions de leur apprentissage. Ces réflexions pouvaient prendre la forme de principes ou de règles concernant leur propre apprentissage ou l'apprentissage en général et se manifestaient par des opinions, des prises de conscience ou des constatations. Cette situation des plus fortuites apporte l'interrogation suivante: de quelle nature sont les réflexions que les autodidactes font à propos de leur démarche d'apprentissage?

METHODE DE RECHERCHE

Provenance des données

Les données ont été recueillies auprès de dix autodidactes qui répondaient aux quatre critères suivants: a) ils étaient reconnus pour leur compétence dans un domaine donné; ils avaient quatre ans et plus d'expérience dans ce même domaine; c) leur scolarité était de seize ans au maximum; d) leur expérience n'avait pas été acquise au travail ou en milieu scolaire. Ces critères, inspirés de Brookfield (1982), permettaient ainsi d'étudier des autodidactes qui, au cours de projets éducatifs à long terme, avaient réalisé des apprentissages avec succès. Les sujets ont été référés par des directeurs d'associations culturelles, sociales ou sportives en fonction des critères précédemment énoncés. Les principales caractéristiques des sujets étudiés sont présentées à l'annexe 1.

Cueillette des données

La cueillette des données a été réalisée dans le cadre d'entrevues non structurées. Chacun des sujets avait à répondre à une seule question ouverte: "Racontez-moi votre expérience d'apprentissage dans votre domaine, des débuts jusqu'à maintenant." L'interviewer avait pour seule consigne de laisser parler l'interviewé pendant tout le temps qu'il le désirait et de n'intervenir

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que si ce dernier dérogeait à la question formulée.

Traitement des données

Une analyse de contenu de chaque réponse a été réalisée, chaque réponse ayant été, dans un premier temps, retranscrite intégralement. Cette analyse a permis de dégager 768 énoncés portant sur la démarche d'apprentissage. De ces énoncés, 315, soit 41%, ont été jugés de l'ordre d'une pratique réflexive, par un jury qui a fait consensus à 100%. A suivi une phase de sous-catégorisation où les membres du jury devaient retravailler à partir de liens logiques présentant une évidence pour chacun des interviewés et pour l'ensemble des interviewés. Pour chacune de ces phases du processus d'analyse et de validation, les trois membres du jury ont travaillé d'abord isolément pour ensuite mettre en commun leur verdict qui exigeait un consensus de 100%, à défaut de quoi un énoncé ou une sous-catégorie étaient rejetés. Le jury s'est ensuite transformé en équipe de travail afin de dégager les grandes catégories ou principaux thèmes pouvant regrouper les éléments analysés.

RESULTATS DE LA RECHERCHE

Les résultats ont été regroupés autour de trois grandes dimensions dégagées de l'ensemble des huit thèmes retenus. La première dimension porte sur le projet lui-même et regroupe les réflexions se rapportant aux thèmes suivants: les contenus, les objectifs, les ressources et les stratégies ou la démarche elle-même. La deuxième dimension concerne l'apprenant lui-même et regroupe les réflexions se rapportant à l'individu en tant qu'apprenant et à son environnement. La troisième dimension a trait à l'apprentissage autodidacte comme tel et regroupe des réflexions énoncées sous la forme de principes ou de règles. Une synthèse des dimensions, thèmes et sous-thèmes est présentée à l'annexe 2.

Dimension 1: le projet d'apprentissage

.Les contenus

En ce qui a trait aux contenus, plusieurs autodidactes avouent en être arrivés à se former une idée plus précise quant à l'essence même du sujet auquel ils s'intéressaient. Une femme peintre, par exemple, affirme que, selon elle, la peinture n'est pas que dessin mais plutôt essentiellement couleur. Les autodidactes notent également que les contenus deviennent de plus en plus spécifiques. C'est le cas du minéralogiste qui, après d'être intéressé aux minéraux en général, a ensuite choisi d'étudier davantage les cristaux, pour enfin prendre conscience qu'il avait le goût de se spécialiser dans les cristaux de certaines régions nordiques spécifiques. Certains autodidactes affirment également être conscients d'avoir une passion pour leur contenu qui dépasse de beaucoup le simple intérêt que l'on peut porter à un objet d'étude. Certains affirment même que cette passion dépasse souvent celle qu'un professionnel de leur domaine pourrait avoir. Une dernière constatation faite par des autodidactes chevauche le contenu et les objectifs. Ils déclarent, en effet, qu'une connaissance minimale d'un contenu représente une condition sine qua non de la formulation des buts qu'ils poursuivent.

.Les objectifs

A l'analyse, il apparaît que les autodidactes emploient très peu le mot "objectif" dans le sens qu'il est habituellement convenu de l'entendre. Ils parlent davantage de "goûts", de "désirs" ou de "choix à faire". Il arrive souvent que le point de départ du projet soit dû au hasard et que ce hasard persiste tout au long du projet et soit même souhaité.

Il faut également noter que les objectifs (désirs ou goûts) évoluent vers quelque chose de plus personnel. Le minéralogiste cité précédemment était, lors de l'entrevue, à la recherche d'un cristal non encore découvert qui pourrait éventuellement être enregistré à son nom. Les autodidactes sont conscients également que tout objectif qu'ils se fixent deviendra source de motivation dans la poursuite d'un autre objectif, s'inscrivant ainsi dans une dynamique sans fin.

Enfin, ils réajustent constamment leurs visées selon les sollicitations de l'environnement; cette situation leur commanderait alors de se situer ou de prendre position à l'intérieur de leur projet. C'est ainsi qu'un amateur dans la fabrication de mouches à pêche a été amené à passer de ce qui lui semblait un simple loisir à un travail rémunéré, à une recherche plus systématique.

.Les ressources

Les autodidactes interrogés sont conscients de développer un réseau de ressources qui, au début, est composé de personnes fort diverses et, par la suite, se restreint à un groupe de spécialistes amateurs comme eux ou de professionnels. Il arrive fréquemment d'ailleurs que ces professionnels fassent appel à leurs services.

Les autodidactes savent pertinemment qu'ils peuvent retrouver les ressources partout. Comme le fait remarquer l'un d'entre eux, il n'y a pas de lieux précis de savoir; la société entière est un lieu de savoir. Ils avouent vouloir profiter de tout ce qui peut leur apprendre quelque chose dans le domaine qui les intéresse. Si, comme certains l'ont fait, ils s'inscrivent à un cours en milieu scolaire, ils n'espèrent par contre aucune certification. Ils profitent de l'occasion pour rencontrer des gens susceptibles de faire partie de leur réseau de ressources ou pour obtenir avec moins de difficulté des informations ou du matériel directement utile à leur projet.

Enfin, certains autodidactes jugent que les personnes-ressources font plus que leur apporter des informations, en ce sens qu'il arrive que ces personnes influent également sur leurs stratégies d'apprentissage.

.Les stratégies

La question des stratégies ou de la démarche d'apprentissage soulève plusieurs commentaires chez les autodidactes interrogés. En réfléchissant globalement à leur expérience, ils constatent, entre autres choses, qu'ils adoptent un mode de fonctionnement particulier: ils se placent d'abord en situation d'expérimentation pour ensuite en juger la valeur et analyser les notions théoriques qui se dégagent d'une telle expérimentation.

Quant à la motivation de départ, elle semble souvent floue, irrationnelle ou due au simple hasard. Le hasard est une notion que l'on retrouve d'ailleurs souvent dans la description que les autodidactes font de leur expérience. En cours de projet, les autodidactes préfèrent laisser venir les choses et tirer le meilleur parti de ce qui se présente, constatant qu'il existe une sorte

6

d'engrenage des faits, des événements qui semble permettre à leur projet d'évoluer. Il semble donc difficile, dans ce cas, de parler de planification dans le sens d'un processus de gestion tout au moins.

Les procédures d'évaluation revêtent un caractère assez particulier. Ils disent ressentir une sorte de sentiment profond (feeling) d'avoir réussi. Pour reprendre l'expression d'une autodidacte: "C'est comme un fluide qui circule en-dedans et qui me dit que c'est ça que je voulais faire et que c'est bien fait".

La démarche autodidacte présente également deux aspects qu'il a été difficile de nommer mais qui semblent représenter cependant des éléments importants du mode de fonctionnement des sujets étudiés. Ces éléments, pour les fins de la recherche, ont été appelés "stockage" et "repérage". Dans l'opération stockage, l'autodidacte met en réserve toute information qui se rapporte directement ou indirectement à son apprentissage. Comme l'affirme une autodidacte, "c'est comme quand on fait une courtepointe: tu ramasses des guenilles, même si tu fais rien avec dans l'instant, mais un jour, j'aurai la chance d'en faire l'étude"(sic). Dans l'opération repérage, les connaissances acquises antérieurement sont restées emmagasinées jusqu'au moment où, dans une situation donnée, elles ressurgissent. Même si le sujet était persuadé d'avoir oublié, la mémoire se réactive pour reconstituer un savoir acquis. Un autodidacte a établi une analogie entre ce mode d'opération et une valise où sont placées en réserve diverses données éventuellement utiles: "à un moment donné, tu regardes dans tes valises puis tu dis 'Ah, j'ai pas tout ça!' Mais c'est vrai qu'on l'a! -pas pour se vanter- mais c'est quand même des acquisitions qui font que... qui sont là...des choses qu'on a apprises et qu'on va chercher"(sic).

Dans un autre ordre d'idées, il semble exister un plafonnement qui est perçu au cours de la démarche; les personnes ont alors l'impression qu'il n'y a plus de défi à relever ou qu'une sorte de routine a pu s'installer. Loin de signifier l'arrêt du projet, ce plafonnement est plutôt suivi d'un nouvel élan dans la poursuite d'un but spécifique; ce plafonnement agirait à la manière d'un déclencheur.

Il existe également de nombreux transferts dont les autodidactes sont conscients. Par exemple, la façon de procéder dans un domaine peut être réutilisable dans un sous-domaine d'étude. Certains ont même la conviction que le transfert de connaissances acquises dans un domaine pourrait s'effectuer en utilisant ces connaissances dans un autre domaine.

Il convient enfin de signaler que les autodidactes interrogés deviennent de plus en plus conscients de la nécessité de s'impliquer dans des sous-projets ou projets-annexes qui sont directement liés à leur projet global. C'est ainsi que, par exemple, un généalogiste a dû s'intéresser à la paléographie afin de déchiffrer les actes notariés contenus dans les archives qu'il consultait.

Les réflexions et prises de conscience des autodidactes interrogés peuvent donc porter tant sur la nature de leurs objets d'étude que sur les objectifs poursuivis, les ressources utilisées ou la démarche privilégiée.

Dimension 2: l'apprenant

.L'individu

En ce qui a trait à l'aspect personnel, les autodidactes interrogés sont conscients de certains traits de personnalité qui les caractérisent. Ils se disent intuitifs, curieux, cette curiosité étant liée au goût d'apprendre, voire au besoin continuel d'apprendre. Ils affirment également avoir le goût du risque, c'est-à-dire agir d'abord et voir ensuite si l'action a porté fruit. Paradoxalement, ils avouent manquer de confiance en eux-mêmes par rapport à l'action ou au projet. Ils se disent cependant très réceptifs au support de tout événement ou de toute personne pouvant les aider à acquérir cette confiance en eux-mêmes.

Ils se disent conscients d'essuyer parfois des échecs, mais considèrent que ces derniers font partie intégrante de leur démarche. Ils se savent créateurs et ressentent ce besoin de créer du nouveau dans la gratuité.

Lorsqu'ils parlent de leur mode de fonctionnement en tant qu'individus,

3

les autodidactes interrogés sont en mesure de préciser clairement dans quel contexte ils fonctionnent le mieux. Par exemple, un répondant mentionne qu'il rejette la passivité liée au fait d'écouter un cours dans un contexte scolaire tandis qu'il recherche la capacité d'agir, la responsabilité, l'autodiscipline, la liberté et le rythme d'apprentissage que lui permet le contexte non scolaire.

L'autodidacte, tout en poursuivant son projet, est conscient de l'influence de son background culturel, de barrières culturelles ou encore des rôles sociaux qu'il doit assumer. Par exemple, pour ce qui est du background, une dame avoue hésiter à "gaspiller" trop de peinture ou de toiles, tout en étant très consciente que ces restrictions qui nuisent pourtant à son expression artistique proviennent du fait qu'elle a connu les privations imposées lors de la Crise des années '30. Pour ce qui est des barrières culturelles, un autodidacte rappelle que, jeune homme, lorsqu'il a commencé à s'intéresser à la danse, il a senti la résistance de son milieu qui considérait plutôt la danse comme étant une activité réservée aux jeunes filles. Pour ce qui est des rôles sociaux, une dame se dit consciente du fait que ses rôles de mère et d'épouse peuvent parfois la placer dans des situations conflictuelles par rapport à son projet d'apprentissage.

.L'environnement

En ce qui a trait à l'environnement, les répondants affirment que le goût et la satisfaction que leur procure leur projet d'apprentissage font qu'ils éprouvent le besoin de communiquer, de transmettre le contenu, de partager la démarche avec d'autres personnes de leur entourage, d'une façon spontanée, gratuite. L'illustration la plus probante est peut-être celle de l'expert en montage de mouches à pêche qui donne des leçons à des personnes handicapées souffrant de maladies articulaires dans un but thérapeutique.

Les autodidactes mentionnent l'influence qu'exercent sur eux les personnes de leur environnement, l'impact sur leurs projets éducatifs des feedbacks, tant positifs que négatifs, que leur fournissent ces personnes. Ils ont conscience d'apporter quelque chose aux personnes qui les entourent et d'apprendre d'elles. Ils se savent en interaction. Ils mentionnent également certains événements extérieurs qui viennent déclencher chez eux soit un nouvel intérêt, soit un nouveau besoin liés à leur projet d'apprentissage.

Les réflexions et prises de conscience des autodidactes interrogés, par rapport à la deuxième dimension étudiée, portent donc tant sur leurs traits de personnalité, leur mode de fonctionnement et certaines dimensions socio-culturelles que sur leur environnement.

Dimension 3: l'apprentissage autodidacte

.Les principes

Les apprenants interrogés font ressortir certains principes se rapportant à l'apprentissage autodidacte. Selon certains, la démarche de l'autodidacte procède de l'action à la vérification ou théorie pour revenir à l'action: "Je lisais Bernard Demory(...) Il a animé des groupes(...). C'est aller vérifier si ce qu'on fait est bon. Je pense que la théorie, faut pas la mettre de côté(...); elle est là, on peut s'en servir"(sic).

Un autre aspect concerne ce qu'il conviendrait d'appeler la spécificité de l'apprentissage adulte. Des autodidactes affirment que l'adulte, par opposition au jeune, étudie par choix, qu'il utilise ses expériences antérieures dans le domaine pour comprendre les nouvelles informations et qu'il est en mesure de vérifier si ce qu'il a acquis précédemment est valable. Certains ont pris conscience, à partir de leur expérience, que l'apprentissage a un impact sur le développement intégral de la personne.

Un autre principe qui ressort du discours des autodidactes est que l'apprentissage va du plus simple au plus complexe. Pour eux, l'apprentissage est de plus perçu comme simple et facile, puisqu'il suffit d'y mettre le temps et d'aimer savoir et créer.

Il existe un fort consensus autour du fait que l'apprentissage n'a pas de fin: "(...)admettons qu'on pourrait vivre 10,000 vies; dans la 10,000^{e}, ben, on saura pas encore le 1/1,000^{e} de ce qu'on devrait savoir"(sic).

10

.Les règles

En plus d'énoncer des principes, les autodidactes formulent des règles se rapportant à l'autodidaxie. Selon eux, une attitude d'ouverture est nécessaire: "Ça prend beaucoup d'observation; pas chercher quelque chose en particulier, mais être prêt à trouver n'importe quoi"(sic). Il faut non seulement avoir une attitude d'ouverture, mais il faut également prendre l'initiative, trouver les moyens, savoir saisir toute occasion d'apprendre.

A leurs yeux, tout est question d'expérience. Certains jugent que, dans certains cas, des contenus acquis par des livres peuvent valoir une expérience pratique. En réfléchissant à l'ensemble de leur démarche, des autodidactes constatent qu'il faut "partir seul, aller vers les autres, pour ensuite revenir travailler seul" et que ce mouvement se répète tout au long du processus. Enfin, certains identifient des écueils à éviter en situation d'autodidaxie: "il faut veiller à ne pas faire seulement ce qui plaît ou ce qu'on aime" dans son projet.

Les réflexions des autodidactes interrogés, par rapport à la troisième dimension étudiée, portent donc sur un ensemble de principes et de règles liés à leur situation d'apprentissage.

ANALYSE DES RESULTATS

L'inventaire des pratiques réflexives obtenues suite à l'analyse du contenu permet de constater que ce que les autodidactes déclarent englobe et dépasse la réalité de l'apprentissage dans ce qu'il a de factuel et de strictement observable. C'est en ce sens qu'il serait permis d'affirmer qu'il s'agit de méta-apprentissage, le préfixe "méta" signifiant justement "englober et dépasser". L'étude des manifestations de méta-apprentissage est encore récente; il est difficile d'en saisir l'essence même et, partant, d'en donner une définition claire et définitive. Cette première analyse des diverses réflexions portant sur certaines dimensions de la démarche autodidacte a cependant inspiré une définition qui, bien que devant éventuellement être précisée, peut servir de guide pour les recherches en cours dans le domaine. Cette définition du méta-apprentissage est la suivante:

> "Tout ce qui englobe et dépasse les diverses dimensions de la démarche éducative dans le sens d'une compréhension de sa réalité d'apprenant par l'autodidacte lui-même."

En décrivant les pratiques réflexives d'ordre du méta-apprentissage, cette recherche s'inscrit dans la lignée des recherches portant surtout sur la métacognition de Flavell (1979) et le méta-apprentissage de Maudsley (1979). C'est pourquoi il serait intéressant d'établir certaines analogies entre les résultats présentés par ces auteurs et ceux de la présente recherche.

Flavell (1979) définit la métacognition comme la connaissance et la compréhension du phénomène cognitif. Dans son modèle sur le monitoring cognitif, il lie la métacognition à quatre catégories: la connaissance, l'expérience, les tâches ou les buts, les actions ou les stratégies.

Trois catégories de Flavell correspondent aux résultats obtenus dans la présente recherche, regroupés sous la dimension 1: le projet. On y retrouve, en effet, le contenu (acquisition de connaissances), les objectifs ainsi que la démarche ou les stratégies. Quant à l'expérience, on ne retrouve pas cette catégorie comme telle puisqu'elle représente plutôt, dans la présente recherche, l'objet d'étude dans sa globalité.

Compte tenu que la présente recherche s'intéresse spécifiquement à l'expérience de méta-apprentissage, il semble pertinent de comparer également les résultats obtenus aux résultats obtenus par Maudsley (1979) dans son étude portant sur le méta-apprentissage. Maudsley définit le méta-apprentissage comme un processus par lequel l'apprenant devient conscient et contrôle de plus en plus ses façons habituelles (habits)de percevoir, de chercher, d'apprendre et de se développer. Cette conscience et ces façons habituelles de percevoir se retrouvent dans le discours des sujets étudiés dans la présente recherche. De par les termes employés et les nuances apportées aux expériences relatées et aux principes soulevés, les sujets de la présente étude se montrent en effet éminemment conscients de la subjectivité de leur vision de la réalité. Les réflexions d'ordre du méta-apprentissage portant sur la recherche se retrouvent surtout sous la dimension 1:le projet. Cette dimension comprend des pratiques

17

réflexives portant sur les contenus, les objectifs, les ressources, les démarches et stratégies d'apprentissage. Quant aux façons habituelles d'apprendre, les autodidactes interrogés ont pu énoncer des règles et des principes qui montreraient qu'ils sont conscients et qu'ils contrôlent de plus en plus leur apprentissage. Pour ce qui a trait au développement, dernière dimension évoquée par Maudsley, il semble que ce soit à l'intérieur de la deuxième dimension de la présente recherche que l'on retrouve le plus d'éléments pouvant illustrer un processus de croissance ou de développement. En effet, les autodidactes interrogés se montrent conscients des traits de personnalité, des modes de communication, des modes de fonctionnement à partir desquels ils assument le monitoring de leur projet.

Il semble bien que l'approche déductive de Maudsley qui construit son modèle à partir de cinq théories empruntées à la psychologie et à l'éducation et l'approche inductive de la présente recherche offrent des points de convergence qui invitent à une analyse plus approfondie. La présente étude aura contribué, en s'appuyant sur des faits recueillis sur le terrain, à illustrer et à décrire avec plus de précision divers aspects d'un phénomène susceptible de soulever diverses pistes de recherche et des implications pour la pratique de l'éducation des adultes.

IMPLICATIONS POUR LA THEORIE ET LA PRATIQUE

La difficulté à définir le phénomène du méta-apprentissage présente sans doute un indice sûr de la nécessité de continuer la présente recherche et d'en entreprendre de nouvelles.

La recherche pourrait, entre autres, examiner si les manifestations de méta-apprentissage sont spécifiques à une démarche autodidacte de longue durée ou si elles peuvent se retrouver dans d'autres types de démarches tels les projets auto-gérés de courte durée ou les activités éducatives du milieu formel.

Cette piste de recherche apporte un autre type d'interrogation à savoir si le méta-apprentissage est lié à la situation d'apprentissage choisie ou si il représente une caractéristique spécifique de l'apprenant adulte. Certains chercheurs postulent d'ailleurs l'existence de stades postérieurs au stade formel (Shaie, Arlin, Gruber, Broughton, Gibbs in Lefebvre-Pinard, 1980).

13

Lefebvre-Pinard (1980) se demande s'il existe des changements cognitifs chez l'adulte. Comme elle le fait remarquer, si un processus d'auto-régulation et de monitoring du fonctionnement cognitif s'avérait une habileté spécifique de l'adulte, cela ouvrirait la voir à de nombreuses recherches.

Quant aux méthodes à utiliser pour l'étude d'un tel phénomène, elles constituent en elles-mêmes une recherche pour ne pas dire une prémisse aux recherches à entreprendre.

Il faut également souligner qu'une meilleure compréhension du phénomène ne peut qu'enrichir l'élaboration d'une théorie de l'apprentissage adulte.

Si le méta-apprentissage était intimement lié à un processus autonome d'apprentissage, certaines implications pratiques pourraient également être dégagées tant pour l'élaboration d'activités éducatives de type auto-géré, que pour les programmes axés sur le développement de l'autonomie et les interventions des éducateurs impliqués dans de telles situations éducatives. En effet, une activité ou un programme devraient, par exemple, tenir compte des temps de réflexion ou d'intégration qui semblent naturellement nécessaires à une meilleure orientation de l'action. Les éducateurs devraient aussi être en mesure de développer certaines habiletés ou "sensibilités" susceptibles de tenir compte tant des actions observables et mesurables que des composantes découlant d'un processus de réflexion qui demeurent probablement plus floues et certes difficiles à saisir et à évaluer.

CONCLUSION

La présence de manifestations de méta-apprentissage en cours d'autodidaxie suscite de nombreuses questions et présente un défi stimulant pour les chercheurs. Les autodidactes interrogés, par le récit de leur expérience, représentent des auteurs-clés sur lesquels la recherche devra s'appuyer, à ses débuts à tout le moins, si elle veut progresser dans le sens d'une saisie systématique, fidèle et complète du phénomène.

Se pourrait-il qu'à ce jour, nous n'ayons observé que la pointe de l'iceberg et que grâce aux autodidactes il soit désormais possible de penser aller vers une saisie plus complète parce que plus profonde du phénomène de l'apprentissage adulte? Chose certaine, l'étude des apprentissages auto-gérés semble devoir dépasser la connaissance des caractéristiques de l'apprenant autonome, des habiletés nécessaires à la conduite d'un projet, pour aller au coeur même du processus. Il semble que ce soit là une avenue privilégiée qui contribuerait éventuellement à poser les assises d'une théorie de l'apprentissage adulte qui soit multidimensionnelle, dynamique et holistique.

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NOTES

1) GRAAME: Section d'Andragogie, Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université de Montréal, C.P. 6203, Succ. "A", Montréal, Qc, H3C 3T3.
2) Les fonctions(n: 29) ont été extrapolées d'une recherche portant sur l'aide à l'apprenant en situation d'autodidaxie (Tremblay, 1981).

ANNEXE 1

QUELQUES CARACTERISTIQUES DES SUJETS ETUDIES

Sujet	Age	Sexe	Scolarité	Projet	
				Durée	Nature
1	35	H	13	18	Danse
2	54	H	11	5	Minéralogie
3	58	F	15	5	Orchidées (culture)
4	53	F	11	28	Animation
5	55	H	7	20	Généalogie
6	51	F	12	31	Pétanque
7	58	F	12	4	Philosophie
8	56	F	13	6	Peinture
9	42	H	9	24	Mouches (pêche)
10	20	H	16	8	Musique
	M: 48,2		M: 11,9	M: 14,9	

16

ANNEXE 2

DIMENSIONS	THEMES	SOUS-THEMES
1. PROJET	1) Contenus	• Essence • Evolution • Passion • Connaissances de base
	2) Objectifs	• Contre-objectifs • Personnalisation • Evolution/réajustement
	3) Ressources	• Réseau • Diversité • Exploitation • Personnes-ressources
	4) Démarche/stratégies	• Mode de fonctionnement • Planification/organisation • Evaluation • Stockage/repérage • Plafonnement • Transfert • Projets-annexes
2. APPRENANT	1) Personnel	• Traits de personnalité • Mode de fonctionnement • Composantes socio-culturelles
	2) Environnement	• Communication • Impact des personnes/événements
3. APPRENTISSAGE AUTODIDACTE	1) Principes	• Théorie/pratique • Spécificité de l'apprentissage adulte • Action/réflexion • Gradation • Durée infinie • Développement intégral
	2) Règles	• Ouverture • Initiative • Savoir d'expérience/savoir théorique • Interaction • Ecueils

Notes Towards a Definition of Community in Adult Education

Alan M. Thomas, CASAE, Guelph, June 1984

Our friend and colleague, Paz Buttedahl, takes a broad, theoretical sweep about the nature of our mutual enterprises (some further comments on Paz and any of those who have spoken). I prefer, I think, to take a more personal approach, personal in the sense of wondering why I am here, why any of you, for whom the effort has been so much greater, are here, who should be here, who is not, and whether there are people who are here, meaning no discourtesy, who by some yet to be unearthed definition, should not be here. Overall, we must admit, I think, that it is something of a professional hair shirt, that the loveliest month in our winter-ridden country should be spent indoors, or scowling at the sunshine from the window of an airplane as we scurry from one professinal gathering to another.

With respect to the conditions of participation referred to, all positions have been recently advanced. Those who ought to have come haven't, some who ought not to have come, have--and in total, there is either no health in us, or something is lacking. It is a crisis of identity perhaps, not unfamiliar in any of the areas and institutions in which most of us spend our days.

The question for me is twofold. Is the mixture of individuals, interests, skills and attitudes gathered here the mixture that conforms to any reasonable estimate of the state of the academic and/or intellectual arm of contemporary adult education? And, what is it that we are aspiring towards, that is to say, who should compose the body of peopple who will meet in this room--Guelph's turn will once again have come around in the slow but relentless turning of the learned galaxies--fifteen or twenty years from now, under these auspices, when CASAE has become a rich, and powerful, or maybe just old and distinguished organization.

I don't know with any clarity the precise background of everyone in the room, but let me guess at some components of the mixture. There are those whose formative years of employment have been entirely within the academic fold. It is an honourable trade, and there is a natural and entirely creditable disposition towards building the bases for theory, strengthening the discipline by publishing in the appropriate publications; teaching, supervising and coaching students towards more appreciation for and skill in the conduct, interpretation and utilization of research in a field where practice notably extends beyond both the utilization and the availability of such research; and finally living both comfortably and aggressively within the university world with all of its routines, rituals and procedures. There can be no doubt that they have a particular vision of what this group should be and should become.

A second group is made up of those who have moved in and out of academic positions, sometimes in and out of universities. They have done so during a period that both permitted and encouraged such peripatetic if not mendicant behaviour. That time seems to have passed at least for a while, but nevertheless the experience and perhaps the expectations remain. I am, of course, among that fellowship, and maybe only advertise my own experience in saying that, the notions of increasing the body of discipline, publishinng in the appropriate journals, and relaxing into the university culture are surely and inextricably mixed with wishing to use the freedom and opportunities the university provides for me to address myself, and university resources to dominant problems of both a practical and theoretical nature (I think) that engage the society and which I believe will yield to the application of a learning and adult education perspective. Perversely, I gain as much if not more satisfaction from the publication of a commissioned report than I do from an article in a journal. I am aware that that may be a short-sighted and short-run view, but you all know what happens in the long run.

The third group is composed of individuals who do not work in academic surroundings, and very likely do not wish to, despite the advantages that an external position always perceives. They live closer to the firing line, but my experience tells me that this does not mean that they are not theoretically interested. or that they have not, are not and will not contribute to that realm of adult education. In many respects, they are either graduates or students of our various academic workshops, but we know that for the most part they are not conventional students of the graduate condition, that is, students who have pursued nothing but student lives since their emergence from whatever it is adults emerge from. They bring experience and knowledge that is far superior to that of the other two groups in respect to various areas of the practice and growth of adult education.

There may be other distinct categories of individuals here. If so, let me welcome you, let me encourage you to speak on your own behalf, departments, I think we have also brought an important "Janus-like" quality to the work of those departments, which would be a risky loss. Group Number Three will continue to increase by giant steps, if the critical mass of our student bodies, and the general tendencies of the great society, can be trusted to continue. This group will, I believe by the "guts" of the mechanism of transmission that Paz Buttedahl refers to, and in my opinion, based on my experience, be the most important aspect of those organs. But not if they are treated as outsiders to this gathering, or as somehow second class citizens while they are here or in any other part of our organizational endeavours. From my perspective, to separate ourselves from them would be like keeping the feet of the Greek mythology hero off the ground.

To go in the direction I am urging, that is, of nourishing the present composition, will, in my opinion, involve a number of built-in tensions of the kind that this year has produced in terms of program planning, and the conflicting satisfactions of the various constituents. But program planners are what we are supposed to be, at least in part, and I would welcome the challenge of trying to please most of the people most of the time.

If what is presently called "experiential" learning is of the import that some of us believe it to be in shaping individuals, lives, and the quality of existence, then I have to pay attention to the basic experiential quality of my daily life. It is a limited one, and its limits have to be continuously assessed in the light of what I pretent to be and what the society supports me in being--at no mean expense--with respect to adult education. The most stimulating and rewarding part of that daily life is the students--not all of them, but as an aggregate--and they represent the residents principally of the third group, with whom I think we should seek to surround or at least infest this organization. I do not think that models for CASAE should be drawn totally and unreservedly from other so-called learned societies, but that the nature of adult education is such that we have to forge our own, however uncomfortable and inconclusive that task may be.

The Origin and Major Influences of Agricultural Extension in North America: new insights for adult educators

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Introduction

The topic which will be explored in this paper delves into our Canadian roots, in a subject which is so fundamental in our lives that we tend at times to ignore it, or deem it unimportant, particularly in our modern world of technology. I refer specifically to agricultural extension.

One of the former Presidents of the United States, James Abram Garfield once wrote:

> At the head of all the Arts and Sciences
> At the head of Civilization and Progress
> Stands
> Not Militarism, the strategy that destroys
> Not Commerce, the science that accumulates wealth
> But
> Agriculture, the Mother of all Industry, and
> The Maintainer of Human Life.

Much has been written about agricultural extension in the United States but very little appears in Canadian writings. This may help to explain why we tend to give considerable recognition to American influences on agricultural education, and perhaps to ignore our own.

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Within recent years, however, Canadian educators have taken a special interest in the discovery of our historical roots. In April 1979, J. Roby Kidd addressed a group of adult educators on the topic of "Some Preliminary Notes Concerning an Enquiry into the Heritage of Canadian Adult Education" at a conference held in British Columbia which concentrated on the theme of "Adult Education Development and Present Systems, set in the Canadian Context".

In North America, the organizers and participants of the Adult Education Research Conference have opened up the entire topic of adult education historical research. In fact, since 1981, a mini-conference on historical research has taken place just prior to the regular AERC meeting.

Now to come back to Dr. Kidd's address. He states:

> Influences did come again and again and increasingly from the United States... agricultural extension, university extension, study groups, chautauqua, but careful analysis of these and other programs will indicate that while the chief organizers in Canada did know of somewhat similar programs in the United States, the form and character and content of the programs here were not as found elsewhere. (p. 14)

The following points come out clearly. First of all, Dr. Kidd identifies agricultural extension as a major model of adult education. Secondly, he recognizes and mentions the American influence on agricultural extension. One cannot deny the importance of such an influence on agricultural education, particularly through the American land-grant colleges and the Farmers' Institutes. However, further probing into the matter gave rise to the following question: are there other influences which could identify more precisely the origin of the agricultural extension movement in Canada, on the North American continent?

In his important speech, Kidd refers to the paucity of research on the influences and origins of adult education models: "No study has dealt in much detail with these influences, either nationally or provincially, where the main impact was found".

In response to these comments made by an eminent Canadian adult educator, this research attempts to bring further enlightenment to the topic of "major influences" on North American agricultural extension. It also delves into the origin of agricultural extension in Ontario.

Importance of the research

The importance of this research lies in the fact that it identifies the historical source of a major model of adult education (agricultural extension). As such, it offers further and pertinent information concerning the debate introduced by Roby Kidd in 1979, on the "major influences" and "main impact" of adult education models. It also points out that Canadians (especially Ontarians) were indeed the North American pioneers in this particular aspect of agricultural education, rather than the Americans, to whom we readily and perhaps erroneously tend to give the credit. The information uncovered in this research could also open the door to further debate on the origin of adult education models in North America.

The documents

The first part of the presentation will deal specifically with some of the documents used in this historical research. The agricultural offices of Stormont, Dundas and Glengarry (three counties of Eastern Ontario) provided the written reports of early agricultural representatives. The Ontario Archives made accessible a wide number of original documents including the Farmers' Institutes reports. McDonald College in Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue, Quebec, and the University of Guelph provided assistance in researching early documents, theses, and reports on agricultural education. The Ontario Ministry of Agriculture and Food came up with valuable material and comments. However, the most important document used in the preparation of this paper, is a memorandum written in 1906 by C.C. James, Deputy Minister of Agriculture to the Honourable Nelson Monteith, Minister of Agriculture for Ontario at that time.

These documents along with several others obtained through the Ministry of Agriculture constitute the basis of a doctoral dissertation completed in June 1983. (Roy-Poirier, 1983)

The key points of the research

Three key points have emerged from this research:

1. Ontario was the first province or state on the North American continent to appoint through public funding, agricultural agents in local districts;
2. the Ontario model was borrowed from France;
3. the agricultural representatives served as a means to decentralize agricultural education.

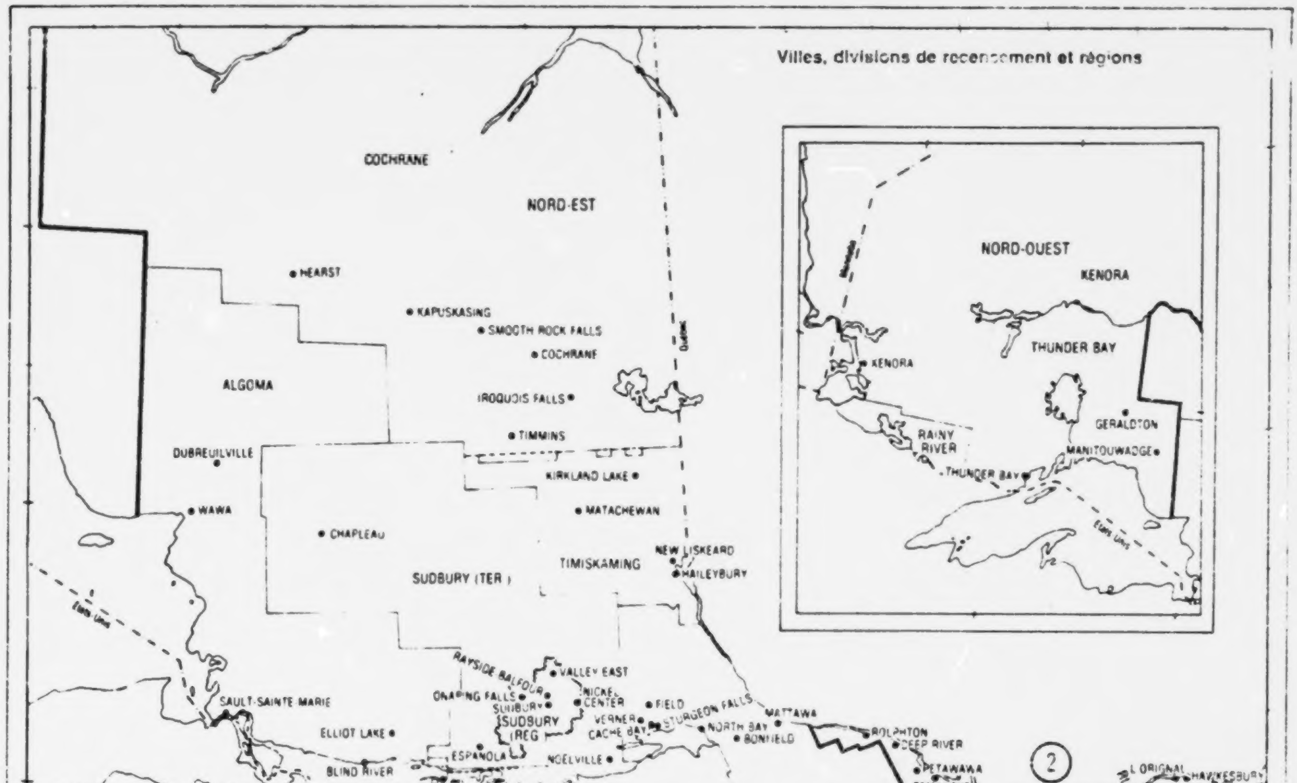
1. Ontario: a major influence in agricultural extension

The first state-run system of agricultural representatives was organized in Ontario:

> Ontario was the first province or state on the continent to adopt the policy of stationing young men trained in agriculture in local districts to full time service to farmers and the farming industry. (Eagles, 1963)

In fact, 1907 emerged as an important year in the history of agricultural education. (Timothy, 1962; Baker, 1959) The first six Ontarian agricultural representatives were chosen and stationed in various parts of the province: W.A. Munro, Dundas county; R.S. Hamer in Lanark county; F.H. Reed in Victoria county; R.E. Mortimer in Simcoe county; E.C. Hart in Waterloo county and A. McKenney in Essex county.

A map which illustrates the location of these counties appears on the next page.



Villes, divisions de recensement et régions

villes
régions
divisions de recensement, 1976 et 1971 sauf
qui indique limite de 1971 modifiée en 1976
La division Sudbury (régional) n'existait pas en 1971, la division (Ontario) n'existe plus en 1976
COCHRANE
NORD-EST
HEARST
KAPUSKASING
SMOOTH ROCK FALLS
COCHRANE
ALGOMA
IROQUOIS FALLS
TIMMINS
DUBREUILVILLE
KIRKLAND LAKE
WAWA
MATACHEWAN
CHAPLEAU
SUDBURY (TER.)
TIMISKAMING
NEW LISKEARD
HAILEYBURY
Québec
États Unis
RAYSIDE BALFOUR
VALLEY EAST
ONAPING FALLS
SUDBURY
SUDBURY (REG)
NICKEL CENTER
FIELD
STURGEON FALLS
VERNER
CACHE BAY
NORTH BAY
BONFIELD
MATTAWA
SAULT-SAINTE-MARIE
ELLIOT LAKE
ESPANOLA
NOELVILLE
BLIND RIVER
MANITOULIN
PARRY SOUND
NIPISSING
ROLPHTON
DEEP RIVER
PETAWAWA
PEMBROKE
RENFREW
EST
ARNPRIOR
OTTAWA
ROCKLAND
VANIER
L'ORIGNAL
HAWKESBURY
PRESCOTT
RUSSELL
ALFRED
ALEXANDRIA
GLENGARRY
CASSELMAN
OTTAWA-CARLETON
STORMONT
CORNWALL
LANARK
DUNDAS
GRENVILLE
LEEDS
BROCKVILLE
FRONTENAC
LENNOX-ADDINGTON
HASTINGS
HALIBURTON
MUSKOKA
VICTORIA
SIMCOE
BARRIE
OWEN SOUND
GREY
BRUCE
DUFFERIN
PETERBOROUGH
BELLEVILLE
TRENTON
KINGSTON
COBOURG
PRINCE EDWARD
OSHAWA
CENTRE
TORONTO
MISSISSAUGA
BRAMPTON
HURON
PERTH
WELLINGTON
WATERLOO
GUELPH
OAKVILLE
BURLINGTON
HAMILTON
STRATFORD
ST. CATHARINES
LINCOLN
NIAGARA FALLS
WELLAND
BRANTFORD
BRANT
MIDDLESEX
LONDON
OXFORD
SIMCOE
NORFOLK-HALDIMAND
PORT COLBORNE
SARNIA
LAMBTON
ELGIN
WALLACEBURG
KENT
SUD-OUEST
BELLE RIVER
CHATHAM
PAINCOURT
WINDSOR
TECUMSEH
TILBURY
ESSEX
LEAMINGTON
NORD-OUEST
KENORA
KENORA
THUNDER BAY
RAINY RIVER
THUNDER BAY
GERALDTON
MANITOUWADGE
ONTARIO
VICTORIA
PETERBOROUGH
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TORONTO
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G. Vallières & M. Villemure

Atlas de l'Ontario français
Montréal, Paris, Editions
Etudes Vivantes, 1981.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

It would appear that this first initiative undertaken through the joint efforts of the Ontario departments of agriculture and education opened the door to the entire movement of agricultural extension in North America. "As nearly as can be ascertained, this was the first attempt to carry out organized extension work on the North American continent". (McLoughrey, p. 8)

It is not the aim of this research to trace back the origin and the evolution of agricultural extension in all of the Canadian provinces. However, let us recall a few of the major breakthroughs.

In 1912, the Canadian government granted the sum of $500,000 to the provinces for the development of agricultural education. On June 6, 1913, it gave a major impetus to the entire movement through the Agricultural Instruction Act which guaranteed the sum of 10 million dollars to the provinces over a period of ten years.(Dandeno, 1924) To supervise and administer this major project, the Honourable Martin Burrell, who was the federal Minister of Agriculture, appointed C.C. James as Commissioner.

Following this major incentive, the Honourable J.E. Caron, the Quebec Minister of Agriculture appointed in 1913, the first five agricultural representatives in his province: Raphaël Rousseau (Bagot et Drummond), Henri Cloutier (Rouville et Iberville), Abel Raymond (Bellechasse et Dorchester), Jean-Charles Magnan (Portneuf et Champlain), and Alphonse Roy (Montmorency et Québec). (Létourneau, 1950)

Meanwhile, in the United States, a prominent agriculturalist, Seaman A. Knapp was attempting to decentralize agricultural education. In 1902, he established a few demonstration farms in the Southern states, particularly in Louisiana. In spite of the public funding which this project received, Seaman's efforts did not succeed in generating interest among the local farmers, "These farms were operated under government subvention without the direct, active participation of the farm people". (Brunner & Pao-Yang, 1949)

In 1906, W.C. Stallings became the first agricultural agent in Texas.(Lincoln & Hearne, 1963) Two years later, Knapp recommended the expansion of this endeavour toward other counties. At Binghamton, in the State of New York, a first agricultural agent was appointed in 1911 to serve the North-Eastern area of the United States. It must be pointed out however that these agents did not function under the jurisdiction of the State, as in Ontario; they were actually sponsored by a number of public and private organizations.

Through the course of the years, the American system of agricultural extension evolved and officially became a reality in 1914:

> Slowly the possibility and opportunity for a nationwide, out-of-school educational system was developing. Slowly sentiment crystallized for Federal support for such a system. This sentiment resulted in the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, which authorized Cooperative Extension work in agriculture and home economics. (Sanders et al., 1966)

It would then appear that the statements made by Eagles and McLoughrey in which they maintain that Ontario is the pioneer in setting up a publicly-funded system of agricultural representatives in the counties has considerable credibility. In fact, McLoughrey recalls the interaction between American and Canadian agriculturalists:

> A start had been made in one of the southern states where Dr. Seaman A. Knapp had started demonstrational work with farmers and had a number of senior farmers paid to help him. From this beginning the County Agent work developed in the South. Other states in the United States sent representatives in Ontario to study our system and to some extent patterned their work after ours. (p. 8)

From these findings, one can say that Ontario was indeed the pioneer of State-operated agricultural representative work in North America.

The French Influence

Through these endeavours to get to the origin of North American agricultural extension, another major influence, originating from France, has been identified.

In 1906, Dr. C.C. James, Deputy Minister of Agriculture in Ontario prepared and submitted to the Minister, the Honourable Nelson Monteith a memorandum which outlines his plan for agricultural extension in Ontario:

> The undersigned begs to submit for consideration a plan that proposes to assist in the introduction of the teaching of Agriculture in the High Schools of Ontario and at the same time greatly expand and materially improve the work of the Department of Agriculture.

In submitting his plan to Monteith, James stated "The question may now be added to whether there is anywhere anything to guide us as an example of such work." Indeed, he specified that there existed such a model in France.

James explained that in 1879, the French government had authorized the appointment of "Departmental Professors of Agriculture in each of the eighty-seven departments" of France. Selected after rigorous training, these men took on numerous and various functions.

First of all, they were required to give agricultural instruction in Normal Colleges, and if so required, in other institutions of public instruction. Secondly, they held agricultural conferences in the country districts of France.

Finally, they were requested to undertake special projects entrusted to them by the Prefect or Minister of Agriculture.

One particular feature of the French model especially appealed to James: the double sponsorship of the project through the Ministries of Education and Agriculture. In this model, James discovered a means of bringing to Ontario a publicly-funded and decentralized system of agricultural education whereby the agricultural representatives would be employees of the State rather than of private agencies.

James concluded by stating:

> The plan I have outlined was suggested to me by a study of this system of France and an acquaintance with the increasing demand of this Province for help along so many lines of Agricultural work.

Through such persuasive evidence obtained in C.C. James' memorandum, one cannot deny the impact of the French model on agricultural extension in Ontario. Dr. Kidd's article mentions only the American influence, and one cannot disagree that it did exist. However, by going directly to the origin of agricultural extension in Ontario, this research adds a new dimension which does not appear in our Canadian historical writings of adult education. The discovery of this fact through documents provided by the Ministry of Agriculture of Ontario brings new light to the debate on the origin and major influences of a major model of adult education, namely agricultural extension.

The Agricultural Representatives

In accordance with the French model, James foresaw the eventual establishment of an agricultural specialist in every county of Ontario: "The ideal organization of the Department will be to have a specialist, an agent, a trained Agriculturist located in every county or district of the Province..." (McLoughrey, p. 2)

The success of the project depended on the competence and the personal integrity of each agricultural specialist. As far as competence is concerned, James chose the best graduates from the Ontario Agricultural College. He states, "Where would we get these men? Naturally, among the graduates of the Ontario Agricultural College".

The establishment of this institution in 1874 set the foundation of agricultural education in the province. Situated in Guelph, Ontario, the college instructed young men who chose a career in farming. The objectives of the institution indicated that: "...the College was established with two objects: 1) to train young men in the science and art of improved husbandry, 2) to conduct experiments and publish the results." (Council of University College, 1910)

Established and financed by the province, the Ontario Agricultural College offered at that time, a variety of courses for farmers: short courses in horticulture, stock breeding, grain-growing...

Furthermore, it offered a two-year programme especially designed for farmers' sons. This programme included agricultural subjects, pure and applied sciences, English and Mathematics. In second year, the student received special training in public speaking. Practical learning through several hours of work on the institutional farm completed the theoretical aspect of the programme. This practical dimension gave the student the opportunity to receive a fee varying between five to nine cents per hour.

A third and more specialized four-year programme offered a more complete type of agricultural training. Admission to this programme was limited; furthermore, there existed a prerequisite, that is, the completion of the two-year Diploma programme. To become a qualified agricultural representative, one had to complete this four year specialized programme at the Ontario Agricultural College.

In spite of the variety of its courses and programmes, the College did not succeed in meeting the needs of the average farmer. In fact, most farming people were apprehensive about change and tended to mistrust the initiatives undertaken by the agricultural educators of the day. This feeling is well indicated in the following passage written by the President of the Ontario Agricultural College in 1893:

> I was not long in the position which I now occupy till I saw very clearly that the O.A.C. was not reaching the farmers of Ontario. Most of the professors were unknown throughout the Province... Some farmers were looking at the College through political spectacles, and could see nothing good in it... The great majority had little faith in our work. (Mills, 1893)

The centralized form of agricultural education dispensed by the Ontario Agricultural College did not reach the grass-roots people who clearly lacked the motivation to learn and to change. In 1906, James therefore sought ways to decentralize agricultural education through a proposal which suggested the eventual appointment of an agricultural representative in each county of Ontario.

What was James' perception of the role and functions of these agricultural representatives? First of all, he saw them as the nucleus of each agricultural association, motivating and informing the farmers, "This local representative would be the moving or directing spirit of every agricultural organization" (McLoughrey, p. 4)

Their functions were varied and numerous: helping the farmers in farm improvement projects, inspecting, teaching, counselling, detecting abnormal crop production, reporting to the provincial authorities, etc. Specialized in various areas of farming, they had to adapt their expertise according to the needs of the area: "In a dairy district, this man should be a specialist in dairying, in a fruit-growing district, a specialist in agriculture, and so on for all sections"(p. 2)

He also perceived them as liaison agents between the Department of Agriculture, the Ontario Agricultural College and the farmers within their district. Leaders among men, they were to supervise the activities of agricultural associations: Agricultural Societies, Farmers' Institutes, Horticultural Societies and Farmers' Clubs. The agricultural representatives' functions included the diagnosis of community needs which were relayed to the provincial office. The provincial authorities in turn were committed to assist them in their educational work.

James also emphasized the autonomous nature of the agricultural representatives' duties: "The work to be done by these men would, of course largely depend upon themselves, though the Department would direct them, more or less".(p. 3)

Apparently knowledgeable of the fact that learning is a continuous process, and that agriculture must be in a constant state of progress and evolution, James foresaw that the agricultural representative would "be expected to go to the Ontario Agricultural College for, say, ten days or two weeks every year to inform himself as to the new work being done".(p. 3)

If agriculture is to progress, new techniques must be learned and old ones often discarded. James' insight into the continuing education of the agricultural representatives revealed his own progressive attitudes towards the learning process, even in as fundamental a subject as agriculture.

The agents of change have been identified; they are the specialists, the key persons who serve and instruct the farmers in their own communities. In the earlier years, they were known as District Representatives. In 1918, they were officially named agricultural representatives, the title which identifies them to this day in Ontario. In Quebec, the agricultural specialists became known as "agronomes", in the United States, as agricultural extension agents.

Conclusion

The study of the documents used in this research has led to the following conclusions.

On the one hand, it is evident that major influences on North American agricultural education did exist. Roby Kidd refers to American influences; the present research points directly to Canadian influences, particularly those from Ontario. In fact, the model for agricultural extension proposed in 1906 by C.C. James, and put into action in six counties of Ontario a year later, constitutes the first organized attempt to establish a public and decentralized system of learning for the farmers of this continent.

Elsewhere in Canada, similar systems were established in the province of Quebec in 1913, and in the other provinces, following the initiative of the Federal Government through the Agricultural Representatives Act of 1913. This important Act of the Canadian Parliament opened the door to the other provinces by setting aside ten million dollars to be spent on agricultural extension over a period of ten years. Furthermore, the federal Minister of Agriculture appointed C.C. James, the founder of the initial movement in Ontario, as Commissioner to administer the new programme.

In the United States, similar legislation took place in 1914 through the Smith-Lever Act, authorizing a public system of agricultural extension.

It is quite evident then, that Ontario has been an important innovator in the establishment of public and decentralized agricultural education for the people who function at the grassroots level, namely the farmers.

Let us also recall the valiant but ineffective attempts of the Ontario Agricultural College to instruct the farming community. In fact, the centralized methods used by this institution at the time only served to alienate the farmers and reinforce their resistance to learn and hence to change. The role of the agricultural representatives was directed at bringing about a reversal of this situation by working closely with the farmers in their own communities.

A second point must also be emphasized. In his founding document, James clearly specified that the model which he recommended was inspired by another, in existence since 1879 in France. In fact, nowhere does he mention any American influence.

Major influences have thus been identified, the first emanating from Ontario, which in turn originates from the French model. This research then proposes a solution to the query and to the problem identified by Dr. Kidd: "no study has dealt in much detail with these influences... where the main impact was found".

The topic which was covered and the material unveiled in this research has dealt specifically with agricultural extension. The educational contribution of C.C. James and the first six pioneers of agricultural extension in Ontario cannot be ignored by Canadian adult educators. Knowledge about their work can only add to the great heritage which is ours as Canadians. Also, there may exist other areas in which our ancestors have made important contributions which still remain unknown...

No stone must remain unturned, no document must accumulate dust, if we are to come up with an authentic history of adult education in Canada.

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Le récit de formation

Adèle Chené

La principale préoccupation de cet article est de présenter, avec son cadre théorique, l'exploration du récit de formation comme moyen d'unification de la formation dans le cadre d'un programme d'études.

Cadre théorique

La formation

Dans le champ de philosophies fort différentes, on n'hésite pas aujourd'hui à dire que le savoir peut être enrichi de sa propre compréhension. Par exemple R. S. Peters (1973) dont les analyses conceptuelles de l'éducation ont trouvé des prolongements en éducation des adultes avec Lawson (1975, 1982) et Paterson (1979) pose que l'éducation ne va pas sans une relation au savoir qui permette à la personne de recréer son savoir et de le dépasser. En effet, c'est le propre de la personne éduquée de pouvoir se situer par rapport à ce qu'elle a appris. Quand il développe sa problématique de la formation, R. Honoré (1977) va jusqu'à dire que le rapport au savoir devient plus important que le savoir lui-même: "il s'agit moins d'apprendre la mathématique que de s'entraîner à la mathématisation. Certes des concepts sont à connaître, mais il devient surtout important de cultiver la mathématisation" (p. 32).

Il semble donc qu'on soit passé d'un savoir à transmettre qui caractérise l'éducation bancaire, comme l'a étiquetée P. Freire (1971), à un savoir à produire. Par le fait même, le rapport de formation est modifié. En effet, dans le mode transmissif, le formateur, relais de connaissances, a un rôle clairement défini et son autorité se fonde sur le savoir. Dans un rapport de formation qui a pour objectif de produire le savoir, il a plutôt pour rôle de rendre le formé "auteur" de sa formation. C'est-à-dire qu'avec lui ou elle, il travaille à une oeuvre commune "de compréhension, de signification, de renouvellement, parfois de création" (Honoré, 1977, p. 32). Ainsi la formation prend-elle racine à la jonction de l'espace personnel et de l'espace socialisé; elle progresse avec le sens que la personne lui donne à la fois dans le champ de son expérience d'apprentissage avec le formateur et sur la toile de fond de la totalité de son expérience personnelle.

Alors on se demandera comment faire émerger ce sens. Qu'il s'agisse ou non d'un contexte institutionnel, il apparaît vital pour la formation que, du côté des pratiques, le formateur favorise l'expression du sens que la personne en formation donne à ses apprentissages non seulement pour qu'il soit plus clair à sa conscience, mais pour qu'il ou elle ait un pouvoir sur lui.

Par ailleurs, la formation est comme un petit tableau dans un grand tableau, c'est-à-dire qu'elle se greffe sur la vie de la personne, fait corps avec son développement, s'articule en profondeur sur sa problématique existentielle. Pour appuyer notre pensée, citons B. Honoré (1977): "La pratique de la formation offre en effet des moments privilégiés pour exprimer le 'manque à vivre' comme souci le plus profond, comme intérêt, comme moteur de l'expérience formative, même lorsque celle-ci est provoquée par un souci d'ordre technique et professionnel" (p. 30).

De ce qui précède il découle que la pratique de la formation se double d'une pratique de communication. Si donc le formateur rend possible que l'auteur de la formation devienne aussi auteur d'un discours sur sa formation, ce dernier aura accès, dans sa parole, au sens qu'il donne à sa formation et, au-delà, à lui-même.

Le discours de formation

Le potentiel du discours de formation est confirmé par la linguistique ainsi que par les premières réflexions philosophiques sur l'autobiographie qui ont suggéré des méthodes à la sociologie et à l'ethnohistoire et inspiré les pratiques de réminiscence (Kaminsky, 1982) et d'autoformation (Pineau, 1983).

Du côté de la linguistique, selon Benveniste (1966), nous entrons par la parole dans l'univers de la subjectivité. En se servant de la langue comme instrument, le sujet se constitue en se révélant à l'autre, tel qu'il se voit ou comme il voudrait être reconnu: "Du seul fait de l'allocution, celui qui parle de lui-même installe l'autre en soi et par là se saisit lui-même, se confronte, s'instaure tel qu'il aspire à être et finalement s'historise en cette histoire incomplète et falsifiée" (p. 77). Nous retenons que la condition de dialogue est constitutive du discours du sujet sur lui-même et que le discours exclut le mode d'énonciation historique. Benveniste ajoute que "pour le locuteur parlant de lui-même, le temps fondamental est le "présent"" (p. 248).

On peut donc entrevoir que le discours de formation prenne la forme d'un récit dans lequel l'énonciateur assumant le _je_ et conférant l'authenticité de l'expérience à ce qu'il considère comme accompli unifie et dit (à l'autre) pour qu'elle soit reconnue la totalité de son parcours de formation.

Ce que pose la linguistique peut être corroboré par l'analyse existentielle fondée sur la phénoménologie ou par la philosophie de la conscience. Si nous prenons comme appui la réflexion de Dilthey sur l'autobiographie, nous pouvons faire ressortir les points suivants: parce qu'elle est portée par l'expérience, l'autobiographie permet de comprendre le moi et ses relations au monde; la signification constitue dans le présent l'unité d'un parcours de vie dont les événements s'accrochent au souvenir: "maintenant que je me souviens, les seuls événements, parmi ceux que je peux encore reproduire, à prendre place dans l'unité de ma vie sont ceux qui ont une signification pour ma vie telle que je la vois aujourd'hui" (Dilthey, dans Habermas, 1976, p. 187). En considérant que le récit de la formation est un fragment de l'histoire plus ample de la vie et en restant fidèle à Dilthey, il nous paraît justifié de supposer que ce récit exprimera "la manière dont le sujet (la conscience) travaille pour venir à bout de la formation (de la vie)".

Dans sa discussion de Dilthey, Habermas (1976) a retenu que l'identité du sujet se situe à l'intersection de deux axes, la verticalité de l'expérience individuelle unifiée par la signification dans la conscience intime du temps et l'horizontalité de la communication intersubjective:

> L'identité du moi qui assure la continuité de l'ensemble biographique au sein des expériences momentanées et éphémères se présente elle aussi comme un rapport dialogique: dans l'interprétation rétrospective du cours de la vie, le moi communique avec lui-même comme son autre. (p. 192)

De même, le rapport dialogique reste fondamental à l'histoire de formation. Si donc le sujet délivre dans un récit la signification de son parcours de formation, celle-ci prend racine dans l'identification du sujet avec d'autres sujets à travers la structure socialisée de la langue en même temps qu'elle se distingue par son caractère inédit, inaliénablement individuel.

Ainsi croyons nous avoir étayé, pour la pratique, la force unificatrice du récit de formation. La découverte de la signification des expériences d'apprentissage reprise, corrigée ou dépassée dans le présent paraît indissociable d'un parcours de formation.

Pratique du récit de formation

Nous avons tenté une première exploration du récit de formation avec six étudiants (2 hommes et 4 femmes) de maîtrise professionnelle en Andragogie dans le cadre d'une activité de fin de programme. Le devis de l'activité de fin de programme comprenait quatre étapes: le bilan des apprentissages, le récit de formation, l'analyse du récit, les compléments de signification.

Bilan des apprentissages

Pour libérer l'expression individuelle et ainsi mettre en place les conditions d'émergence de la signification, pour rendre possible le dialogue dans l'intersubjectivité du groupe, il nous a semblé que la première étape tirerait profit des techniques de créativité. Utilisant tantôt la synectique, tantôt une grille combinatoire, le groupe a d'abord été invité à répondre, pour chaque cours traité, à la question suivante: Qu'est-ce que j'ai appris? Stimulé par les associations des autres, chacun est parvenu à ajouter des énoncés à la liste commune des apprentissages. Si on analyse les énoncés d'apprentissage et si on les compare à ceux de la purge, dans le cas de la synectique, on observe qu'ils sont plus globaux et associés au processus plutôt qu'au contenu. Les fragments de l'expérience de formation sont représentés, tirés de l'oubli par l'association ou extraits d'un souvenir récent.

Après les séances de groupe, l'étudiant devait reprendre à son compte les énoncés d'apprentissage et écarter ceux dans lesquels il ne se reconnaissait pas. Pour compléter le bilan de ses apprentissages, il devait en donner la signification, c'est-à-dire exprimer les relations cognitives et affectives qui pouvaient expliquer qu'ils aient été retenu, et en recenser les applications qu'il retrouvait dans sa pratique.

Cette première étape a eu pour effet de mettre l'étudiant en contact avec la multiplicité de ses expériences d'apprentissage. Tantôt présentés selon un ordre chronologique, tantôt regroupés autour de thèmes, les cours ont pris la forme des résultats qui émergeaient dans le présent et de la signification qui leur était donnée. Semblable pour tous, le programme est pourtant apparu différent d'un étudiant à l'autre.

Récit de formation

La consigne était simple: "Raconte-moi l'histoire de la formation. Comme on raconte une histoire à un enfant, comme on raconte quelque chose qui s'est passé. Certes, il est arrivé des choses pendant ce programme qui a duré plus d'une année, deux ans, trois ans, quatre ans! Alors, raconte-moi...". Il était entendu au point de départ que chaque récit serait communiqué au groupe et analysé collectivement.

Chaque étudiant a donc produit un discours narratif dont la longueur variait d'une à trois pages et qui, engagé à la première personne dès la première phrase, articulait avec une distribution particulière des temps verbaux événements, actions et projets.

Analyse du récit

"Le récit de vie relève de l'analyse phénoménologique" (Poirier et al., 1983); il en est de même pour le récit de formation. C'est-à-dire que la réalité de la formation n'est constituée comme objet que dans son rapport à un sujet qui lui donne une signification. La validité de cette signification est par ailleurs garantie dans la communication intersubjective où, comme nous l'avons su, sont possibles à la fois l'identification et la non-identification à l'autre.

S'il avait analysé seul son propre discours de formation, l'étudiant se serait découvert dans l'interprétation de sa formation et il aurait été contraint de se rappeler, à cause de la structure de la langue, la présence des autres, de ses pairs ou de ses formateurs. Nous avons cependant choisi l'analyse collective et nous nous y sommes associée afin de concrétiser avec la communication en groupe le dialogue implicite dans le récit à la première personne et de permettre aussi l'expérience de la cumulation de nouvelles interprétations.

L'hypothèse qui a guidé le choix de l'instrument d'analyse peut se formuler ainsi: l'enchaînement des états et des transformations du récit de formation symbolise l'enchaînement des états et des transformations de la formation. Ne doutant donc pas qu'elle soit productrice de sens, nous avons choisi d'analyser la composante narrative du récit en utilisant les procédures d'analyse de A. J. Greimas.

Après avoir remarqué que tous les récits étaient engagés à la première personne, que certains étaient explicitement adressés à un autre ("pour vous situer"; "comme vous pouvez le constater"), que la séquence narrative se terminait au temps présent en annonçant, dans certains cas, une histoire à suivre ("je repars", "à suivre"; "j'ai l'intention de"; " je continue de"; "j'aurai à acquérir"), chaque récit a fait l'objet d'une lecture et d'un repérage en groupe des oppositions, des rôles actanciels, de l'objet principal de la transformation (ou objet-valeur) et des phases du programme narratif.

Selon A. J. Greimas (Groupe d'Entrevernes, 1979), «le programme narratif s'organise autour de la performance principale comme noyau; en ce point, les opérations (faire) transforment les états (être). Réaliser une performance, c'est faire être" (p. 18). Or, si la performance est un "faire être", elle suppose une compétence, c'est-à-dire un devoir-faire ou un vouloir-faire qui régissent un pouvoir-faire et un savoir-faire. La capacité à faire s'acquiert dans le texte. Par ailleurs, lorsqu'un sujet agit sur un autre sujet pour lui faire exécuter un programme donné, il y a manipulation; le programme narratif est alors déclenché par des opérations qui se ramènent à un faire-faire ou, dans le cas de la persuasion, à un faire-croire ou à un faire-savoir. Il y a donc une caractéristique cognitive à la manipulation. Enfin, dans la phase de sanction du récit, le sujet d'état reconnaît son état transformé ou, encore, différents acteurs évaluent les résultats de la performance. Pour résumer, disons que la transformation du récit s'opère selon quatre phases organisées en séquence: la manipulation, la compétence, la performance et la sanction. D'après le Groupe d'Entrevernes (1979),

> La séquence narrative comporte donc toujours ces quatres phases logiquement articulées. La réalisation de cette séquence dans les récits peut être assez complexe. Le récit peut être focalisé sur l'une des phases qui sera plus particulièrement manifestée: il existe des récits qui sont centrés exclusivement sur l'acquisition de la compétence par un sujet opérateur, ou sur la sanction... Même dans ce cas, la présupposition de la séquence entière est nécessaire à l'analyse. (p. 63)

Pour illustrer nos analyses, nous présentons un tableau schématique de la séquence narrative d'un des récits de formation.

De l'ensemble des récits, il s'est dégagé à l'analyse que la manipulation est à peu près absente. Par ailleurs, la sanction, faire interprétatif qui évalue les résultats de la performance, occupe une place majeure dans la plupart des récits.

En restant près des textes et en écartant ainsi les justifications de l'interprétation, l'analyse a permis de reconstruire les relations entre les actants du programme d'études, dans l'assemblage des faits, des activités, des motivations et des personnes sur le parcours et une transformation principale. Le récit de formation fait apparaître comment l'énonciateur qui se fait sujet se place au centre de ses expériences de formation et, en les racontant, les saisit comme une totalité.

Compléments de signification

A la suite du travail collectif d'analyse, il nous semblait qu'il fallait favoriser l'intégration des lectures plurielles, rendre possible l'émergence de points de vue autres, interpréter à nouveau le parcours de formation. En nous référant aux versions multiples d'un conte, il nous semblait qu'une nouvelle interprétation pourrait se dire dans un second récit. Les étudiants ont donc été invités à rédiger un deuxième récit. Malgré la résistance à une réécriture, les deuxièmes récits ont été comparables aux premiers par leur richesse; par ailleurs, il semble qu'ils aient été moins centrés sur les détails de l'épisode de la formation et plus liés à la globalité de la vie.

En substitut du second récit, une étudiante s'est représenté les paroles significatives qui, avant, pendant et après son programme d'études, avaient contribué à structurer son expérience de formation. Paroles et répliques donnent la trame du jeu des acteurs sur la scène de formation.

Citons un extrait:

Avant la maîtrise:

J.-C. - Pour être chargée de cours à l'Université il faut avoir une maîtrise
- Je n'ai donc pas le choix, il faut que je plonge

P. - Tu as toutes les capacités pour réussir ta maîtrise, je t'aiderai à la maison
- Quelle parole encourageante et remplie de promesses

Durant la maîtrise:

M. - Apprendre c'est changer
- Je me sens stimulée, motivée, je veux apprendre encore plus

A. - Quand on lit un texte on le recrée
- Je commence à lire de façon différente

Dans le contexte du parcours de formation, chaque parole tombe en place; elle modifie le sujet parce qu'elle entraîne une nouvelle signification.

Discussion

Il nous était paru justifié d'utiliser la grammaire narrative pour analyser les récits de formation. Mais nous avons rencontré deux embûches. Premièrement, les rapports entre les éléments signifiants du texte produisent un effet de sens mais l'analyse structurale ne nous autorise pas à parler du référent externe. Nous pénétrons le discours par une explication "horizontale" (Palmer, 1969) tout en restant à distance des intentions du sujet. Deuxièmement, l'instrument d'analyse fournit son code au déchiffrage du texte et le travail de l'interprète peut faire violence à l'interprétation du sujet. Le projet d'interprétation du récit de formation reste donc entier. Il relève de l'herméneutique.

C'est à partir de quatre thèmes développés par P. Ricoeur (Thompson, 1981, p 91-95) au sujet de l'herméneutique que nous rétablissons le potentiel formateur du récit de formation. Premièrement, le discours se décontextualise lui-même, c'est-à-dire qu'il échappe à son point d'ancrage psychologique et sociologique et s'offre à la recontextualisation de tout lecteur ou interprète éventuel. Deuxièmement, le discours se moule dans des structures dont la description et l'explication médiatisent la compréhension; la reconstruction conduit à la compréhension, comme l'a décrit Habermas. Troisièmement, en transgressant la clôture du texte, l'herméneutique ouvre le discours sur la référence au monde des possibles. Quatrièmement, la préoccupation de l'herméneutique n'est pas de découvrir l'intention derrière un texte mais d'entrevoir un monde devant lui. Il s'ensuit que comprendre un texte n'est pas s'y projeter mais s'y exposer.

En s'engageant dans la pratique de l'analyse collective du récit de formation, le sujet s'autorise à dépasser avec les autres les interprétations qu'il a pu communiquer. Il se constitue comme sujet en aval de son discours. Ainsi sont médiatisés l'unité de son parcours de formation et sa compréhension de lui-même, l'appropriation étant, selon Ricoeur, "la contrepartie dialectique de la distanciation".

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CASAE/ACEEA HISTORY SUB-COMMITTEE

Minutes of Meeting - June 9, 1984

Second Meeting.

The History Sub-committee of CASAE/ACEEA was formed at the time of the annual conference in Toronto (at OISE) in the spring of 1983. During the ensuing year, the interest group was formally constituted as a sub-committee as CASAE/ACEEA and Gordon Selman served as Chair of the group for the year. At the annual meeting at Guelph in June of 1984, the second meeting of the group was held, the minutes of which follow below.

Report on the Year's Activities

Gordon Selman reported to the group briefly concerning activities during the past year. A newsletter had been circulated to all who attended the 1983 meeting and correspondence had been conducted with a number of individuals and organizations, the latter including the history sub-group of the British organization, SCUTREA, the history network of the International Council for Adult Education, and Division F of the AERA. The mailing list of the subcommittee was based on the list of those who attended the founding meeting in 1983, augmented by those who had contacted the committee during the year expressing an interest.

Exchange of Information about Research Activity

Members of the group shared with others information about research activity they were currently engaged in. In the process, a number of common interests were identified.

Discussion of Means of Communication

There was considerable discussion of the best means of communication among interested persons. There was a suggestion that the newsletter for the History sub-section be issued as part of the general newsletter of CASAE/ACEEA, in that way communicating information not just to the members of the sub-committee, but to the CASAE/ACEEA membership as a whole.
Subsequently, however, interest was expressed in a publication somewhat along the lines of the newsletter of Division F of the AERA, one that contained information of an academic nature as well as news - book reviews, comment on matters of substance, etc. Mike Welton of Dalhousie agreed to undertake the development of such a publication. Jeannine Roy-Poirier volunteered to assist with matters of translation.

Future meetings, Associations

Several suggestions were made with respect to future meetings and associations with other groups.

- It was suggested that the CASAE/ACEEA program committee be asked to avoid scheduling history papers at competing times.
- Also suggested that next year a plenary session of the CASAE/ACEEA meeting be planned at which several history papers of general interest would be delivered and discussed.
- It was suggested that we liaise with the Canadian History of Education Association (CHEA). Mike Welton indicated he could be a link with that group.
- It was reported that the Canadian Historical Association (CHA) is planning to focus next year during the Learned Societies on the history of education and that we might wish to link up with, or meet near the same time

that they do.

Possible Sub-committee Projects
Gordon Selman pointed out that the corresponding committee of SCUTREA in Britain carried out joint projects under the auspices of the committee and raised the question as to whether we might do the same. Several possibilities were discussed:

- That we do what we can to assist John Dobson with the further development of his bibliography of Canadian writings.
- That we get copies of the British group's efforts (Jackdaws) and see whether it might be adaptable to our purposes.
- That by means of committees of interested persons in each region of Canada we stimulate the collection of archival material relating to adult education and make known the existence of archival material to others in the field. (The recent archival project carried out at OISE was mentioned in this connection.) The idea of a documentary history of the field in Canada was also mentioned.

Sub-committee Chair
Gordon Selman indicated that he had been named the B.C. member of the Board of CASAE/ACEEA and hoped that someone else would be willing to take on the chair of the History group. Kathleen Rockhill agreed to do this, provided help was forthcoming from others as well. Gordon Selman said he would prepare the minutes of this meeting and send them and relevant papers along to the new chairperson.

Gordon Selman
June 12/84

Joint Plenary Session of CASAE/ACEEA and CPREA

Symposium on Adult Education and Peace

Opening remarks by Alan Thomas, Convenor

It must seem to everyone present that this is a critical and important time for the two groups represented here to meet. Our presence, that is the adult educators, arises from an initiative taken at our last annual meeting to the effect that CASAE could not stand aside from the pressing concerns associated with the search for peace. If war begins in the minds of men, then so must peace. Not being determinists, we must also be convinced that the behaviour that leads to either war or peace is learned behaviour. And, since it is not children that cause wars, then adult educators have to be concerned with what contribution the organized learning of adults, adult education, is making or could make to the pursuit of war or peace. The interests of the Peace Research members needs no elaboration in this context, but perhaps it would be useful to draw what appear to me to be some parallels between the two organizations. Both organizations represent the academic arms or thrusts of popular movements. While the quality of movement in adult education is often obscured these days by the rapid institutionalization of the practices associated with it, I am convinced that it is only sleeping temporarily. The appearance of movement committed to the pursuit of peace, is of course, all around anyone with eyes to see.

Perhaps both groups need to reflect - and it would be profitable to reflect together - on how best our academic resources, habits, and perspectives can serve the movements from which we have emerged. There are those who believe that there is little we can do but track and reflect upon the actions of the "streetfighter" whose activities will and must outdistance the more ruminative and reactive responses of academia. There are those who look to us for ideas for action, that our relatively privileged positions above the fray should stimulate us to contribute. There are those who, with some reason, believe that we cannot make much contribution, and those who believe that we should not take sides.

There is no simple solution to any of these propositions, though without doubt there are fierce holders of anyone of the various points of view in the room this morning. There is an American jest that allows that whatever may obtain in the short run, in the long run we will all be dead. However, what must posess all of us without exception is that the threat which we meet to consider is precisely that it is in the short run that we will all perish. The point is taken poignantly in a recent cartoon of a man addressing a small boy with the time honoured question; "what is it you wish to be when you grow up?" The answer is to the point. "Alive" replies the boy-.

We must think jointly beyond the events of this morning, which all of us who have taken part in the planning, representatives of both organizations, see as only a beginning. However it is distinguished beginning, since we have the help of a group of specially able and thoughtful panelists. Professor McQueen from McMaster University; Professor Haydon Roberts of the University of Alberta, and a distinguished visitor, Professor Rashmi Puri of Panjab University, India.

EDUCATION FOR PEACE, AND ADULT EDUCATION

HAYDEN ROBERTS

JOINT CASAE/CPREA MEETING
GUELPH, JUNE 10, 1984
LEARNED SOCIETIES, 1984

2nd Presenter

In this particular context in which we are discussing the subject of peace research and education, I see four questions as being relevant. I'll first state them, then make a few brief responses to and comments about each. The questions are these: --

(1) What is learning?
(2) What is -- and why -- peace education?
(3) What is the responsibility of the university with respect to questions of peace and war?
(4) What has all this to do with adult education?

(1) What is Learning?

In its verb form, learning is commonly held to be a process by which one acquires or changes one's stock of knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes. Let me leave for a moment the skills and attitudes part of that, and look more closely at the knowledge part.

I am attracted to a schema setting out the qualitative development of information, suggested by Yoneji Masuda, the Japanese computer expert, futurist, author of "The Information Society". He sees this development in terms of a kind of hierarchy: --

(i) data -- raw facts, measurements, perceptions, coveying no meaning.
(ii) information: data processed for specific purposes, about some specific aspect of the universe.
(iii) knowledge: information abstracted and generalized, placed in

perspective with other information.

(iv) intelligence: knowledge in relation to action, ie. usable for adaptation to change. eg. the use of military intelligence to change an order of battle.

(v) wisdom: a philosophical, ethical, moral perspective, linking intelligence with purpose or intent.

So, wisdom imports an additional dimension of valuing, in an ethical, moral sense. And we can observe all around us the important -- one might say catastrophic -- gap between knowledge and intelligence on the one hand, and wisdom on the other -- in science and technology in general, in their particular application to medicine, in politics, in law, in military affairs.

I wonder if Dr. Masuda, in making this distinction, is drawing on the roots of his Eastern philosophical tradition. I am reminded of the last chapter of Lao Tse's Tao Te Ching: "He who knows has no wide learning; he who has wide learning does not know." I have seen this otherwise translated as: "He who is learned is not wise; he who is wise is not learned."

In our Western tradition, Bloom and his colleagues come somewhere near to Masuda and Lao Tse, when they suggest, in their taxonomy of learning objectives, that what they call "evaluation" adds to the cognitive process certain criteria relating to value. They show an adherence to rationalism when they suggest that evaluation rests internally on considerations of consistency and logical accuracy, and an adherence to pragmatism and utilitarianism when they suggest that it rests externally on considerations of efficiency, economy, and utility.

Be that as it may, we have, in both traditions, a suggestion that learning must take us beyond knowledge into a moral disposition.

(2) Peace Education

Now for the question of the what and the why of peace education. Are peace -- and its obverse, the causes of war -- meet and proper subjects of study? Here are some views:

> "The search for peace demands all the wisdom that all of us can summon. We need the thoughtful reflections of our spiritual, ethical, and scientific thinkers." (Mulroney)
>
> "This is a period of deep questioning of many of the strategic concepts which have dominated the post-war world." (Trudeau)
>
> "There is no more compelling or urgent issue facing mankind than that concerning peace, security, and disarmament in the nuclear age." (President Hesborough, Notre Dame University)

I am persuaded by these kinds of statements. I am further persuaded by my contacts with fellow academics in my own university, that we need to know more about the physical, climatological, psychological, sociological, economic causes and effects of continued nuclear armament -- all this at the level of knowledge and intelligence. But we need, above all, as part of the questioning and reflection referred to by Trudeau and Mulroney, the application of criteria of moral value to the stock of knowledge we are accumulating -- the kind of learning engaged in by the theologians when they review the old arguments of a just war, as the Roman Catholic bishops have recently done.

And what about lessons from history? Of this I'm not so sure. For much of the judgment that is arrived at about a justification of a future war is based on a reading of previous wars, which I suggest have become irrelevant. One of our own colleagues at the University of Alberta declined to become a member of our peace group, using arguments based on his interpretation of the causes, process, and outcome of World War II, including what he saw as being the allied "victory". In this respect, Einstein's words seem appropriate. "The unleased power of the atom has changed everything but our thinking." There will be no "victory" in a nuclear war, and no experience of anybody in that war, including the victims of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, allow us to make judgments about the full effects of a future nuclear war.

We need, as I have said, to know more about those effects.

(3) The University's Role

Let me leave it at that and say something about the role of the University. I need to justify this focus on the University, because Universities are relatively low on the list of adult education agencies in terms of numbers of participants in programs, in other words, the field extends far beyond this particular institution. Moreover, both the Canadian Peace Research and Education Association and the Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education intend to, and do in fact, include non-University members. Nevertheless, this question of peace research and education does raise some questions which relate particularly to Universities and University faculty members.

You will probably recall the timely issue of the CAUT Bulletin of April this year, which devoted most of its space to this subject.

It is appropriate that we are discussing this subject on this campus, for Dr. Howard Clarke, in that Bulletin, referred to the University of Guelph's Aims and Objectives which state, "the most fundamental objective of a university (is) the provision of liberal education". And the University of Guelph definition of liberal education is, "one that develops a broad-based intellectual, moral, and aesthetic maturity." which brings us back again to President Hesborough's suggestion that "there is no more compelling or urgen issue facing mankind than that concerning peace, security, and disarmament in the nuclear age".

One point made in that Bulletin, by Dr. K.H.W. Killborn of the University of Western Ontario, struck me as being particularly relevant to this discussion. He wrote, "most academics are morally entitled to speak on these issues (peace, nuclear disarmament, etc.) only as individual citizens, not as professionals".

Now, I don't know how Dr. Killborn defines "morally", but the history of moral philosophy justifies the observation that the source of morality is sufficiently debatable to allow us to not take Dr. Killborn's words as gospel. And I don't know what he means by "professionals", but in the context in which he was writing, it is reasonable to conclude that by "professionals" he means university scholars. In the light of my previous remarks about wisdom and knowledge, and their being complementary parts of the cognitive process, I find it interesting that it should be suggested that university scholars, as scholars/-professionals, who are supposed to represent that highest stage of the hierarchy of information development that Masuda talks about, should be excluded from the responsibility of speaking, as scholars/professionals, on this "most compelling and urgent issue facing mankind".

(4) Adult Education and Peace Education

What has this got to do with adult education? Here perhaps one may distinguish between adult education as the practice of extending, to the public, knowledge generated in the universities and elsewhere -- ie. the extension or continuing education function, which some of us are engaged in - and adult education as a field of study, or discipline. I don't wish, by making this distinction, to divorce one from the other; practice and theory must obviously go hand in hand, to the advantage of both.

I have no doubt that at this point in history we who are in university extension or continuing education have a major responsibility for studying ways of increasing public knowledge and intelligence about what nuclear power and nuclear war mean. I take that as axiomatic for the field as a whole, though I accept that with the field different people will take an interest in different content-areas of knowledge, such as business management, public affairs, creative art. I also see us as having a responsibility to be part of the teasing out of the moral dimension of it all.

With regard to adult education as a field of study, there seems, on the face of it, more room for debate, and some of our colleagues have argued that adult education should be socially and politically neutral. But even here, I would take that side of the debate which proposes that there is a social/public/political dimension to the study of the field. For, just as in the practice of exension and continuing education, there is a place for some of us to be concerned with this aspect of public affairs or civic affairs education while others work in other content-areas, so, in the study of adult education, there is a place for some of us to be concerned with research about the forces -- political, social, economic, and so on -- which influence the find of adult education that is demanded and supplied, and what kind of learning ensues -- in other words, the macro picture as distinct from the micro picture which concerns itself with such aspects of the matter as intrinsic motivation and the psychology of adult learning. And of course, this does not preclude individuals from being interested in both the macro and the micro aspect.

Let me illustrate, from a very recent event, what I mean by the kinds of forces that impinge on the way people learn and the kind of conscienceness that I believe adult educationists need to have.

My illustration is a concrete one, and, for me, very personal. This very last week, we have been flooded by a wave of news about an important episode in World War II, the Allied landings in Normandy on June 6th, 1944. Every element of the public media has joined in an outpouring of retrospection, in reporting on the visits of Western political leaders to the old beach heads, each leader making statements of glory and the lessons of war. But threaded through it all, there are evidences of a terrible nostalgia, of hankering back to a moment of glory, of bold action and -- in distant retrospect -- clarity and precision of national purpose. In reporting on it, Newsweek writes, "their valour..... contributed the confirmation of America's pre-eminent role as a world power....".

Although I was there on that day in 1944, I have managed not to look on it as particularly illuminating for these more complex and perplexing times, but I did find myself being seduced by the nostalgia, and I have a hunch that many like me, some of them actually visiting the beaches at the time, and other younger people, get caught up in it.

So what I believe is that we should be concious of these effects created by the media reflecting certain political perspectives and influences. I believe that as adult educationists, we need to be concerned to look behind such mass media phenomena, to take an interest in what they do to people's attitudes toward nationalism, patriotism, war. What are people learning? What is to be our response?

Education as a Soporific Activity: the challenge to peace education in the university

> ". . . a government such as ours (or any other), which rests on the ignorance of the people, will never consent to their being really enlightened. It will sanction all kinds of pseudo-educational organizations, controlled by itself: schools, high schools, universities, academies, and all kinds of committees and congresses and publications sanctioned by the censor - so long as those organizations and publications serve its purpose, i.e. stupefy people, or, at least, do not hinder the stupefaction of people."
>
> Leo Tolstoy,
> "Letter to the Liberals" (1896)

Educators often think of education as the process of transmitting knowledge. Some of us even like to think of educating as the prompting of insight, the awakening of minds. Of course these things sometimes happen during education, but much else happens too. Educating people involves bringing them up, rearing them, adapting them to the particular order (social, political, economic, cultural) in which they are to live.[1] Whatever else it may mean, to educate means to socialize.[2] This socialization is accomplished by a variety of means, including the inculcation of values, the cultivation of roles and the promotion of life strategies. And, yes, it takes place through the transmission of knowledge; but it also takes place through the transmission of ignorance. By "the transmission of ignorance" I do not refer merely to the faulty transmission of knowledge but to the passing on of meaningful, functional ignorance, ignorance that is theoretically avoidable, that fits a pattern and is of use in maintaining a given order or set of values. It is useful to explore such ignorance transmission, because it conflicts with our self image as educators. Investigating apparent contradictions is a potent way to raise our consciousness. It is especially important that those of us who intend to teach about peace and justice undertake these investigations, for these are areas where the transmission of ignorance through education plays a crucial role.

Soporific education in the schools: education as conscription

In whatever schools students are made to revere flags, take oaths of allegiance, sing national anthems or in any other way promise to stand on guard for the state, conscription is taking place. But this conscription requires more than flags and songs: it demands the manipulation of facts and understanding as well. Here are three statements from a French school book of the late nineteenth century in which the process is crystal clear:

> The history of France proves that in our country the sons have always avenged the disasters of their fathers . . .
>
> It is for you, boys being educated in our schools, to avenge the defeat of your fathers at Sedan and at Metz.
>
> It is to make you good soldiers that your teachers instruct you in the history of France.[3]

If we bear this school book in mind we shall understand better the links between the Franco-Prussian war and World War I; and we shall understand better the attempt at vengeance against the Germans in the Treaty of Versailles, which directly links World War I with World War II. It would be pleasant to think that such manipulation of history in the schools is a thing of the past, but it is not.[4] The myth-making continues, and in combination with other forms of socialization it turns the schools into a formidable centre of conscription. Jonathan Kozol says in reference to an American soldier involved in the My Lai massacre:

> This man is six months out of public school. He is six months distant from the Glee Club, Flag Pledge, textbook, grammar exercises, Problems of Democracy. It is essential that we be precise. It is not the U.S. Army that transforms an innocent boy into a non-comprehending automaton in six months. It is not the U.S. Army that permits a man to murder first the sense of ethics, human recognitions, in his own soul, then to be free to turn the power of his devastation outward to the eyes and forehead of another human being. Basic training does not begin in boot camp. It begins in kindergarten.[5]

It should be obvious that ignorance transmission plays an important role in the recruitment of the young. The glorious, and therefore usually false, histories of the fatherland function to maintain a given order. But ignorance transmission does not work only through lies and misinformation; it can be more subtle. I recall, in my own public school education, being given the history of the formation of the British Empire. It was a grand process. History was a story and Britain both protagonist and narrator. That is, history was the autobiography of Britain, or, more precisely, the autobiography of kings, ministers and conquering heroes who "represented" Britain. We were given access to the experience, the consciousness of these people. We heard their words and speeches, learned of their plans and frustrations. At the same time, access to the subjectivity of the conquered peoples (as well as of those British not among the power elite) was systematically denied. We were never given the feelings or the plans of the peoples victimized by imperialism - the native peoples of North America, for example, or the eleven million Africans sold into slavery to serve the colonial powers (not to mention the millions more who perished as a direct result of the slave trade).[6] The imperial power, or rather a small group of people (mostly males) within that power, were subjects while the rest of humanity were objects. The British power elite acted; the various "natives" of the world were acted upon. What we have here is a rather more subtle form of ignorance transmission, one that makes use of, but also goes beyond, distortion of facts. We may call it "the systematic denial of the subjectivity of a group of people", and we can see that it is highly functional. The subjective life of the peoples conquered by Britain was real; I was denied knowledge of the details and even the existence of it; this denial of knowledge was crucial to my recruitment into the British Commonwealth. So ignorance transmission involves not only the manipulation of facts, or even categories of facts, but the formation of habits of non-perception. We may speak of learned non-perception, meaningful blindness.

The particular form of ignorance transmission discussed here has been of great importance historically. The inability to perceive the subjectivity, and especially the suffering consciousness, of peoples has regularly made it easier to oppress and annihilate them. It helped support slavery in the United States and serfdom in Russia.[7] It has served racism well, and has contributed to some of the worst acts of genocide in history.[8] It is not a thing of the distant past, either in general or as a component of state education. In 1965, for example, an official of the Boston School Department explained to Jonathan Kozol that he had been fired from his position as teacher in a Boston public school for having transgressed the rule that no poem "by any Negro author can be considered permissible if it involves suffering".[9]

My conscription to the British Commonwealth did not take place only through the formal teaching process, of course. We were given the usual songs-and-flags treatment as well. On one morning we might sing "O Canada" and on the next morning "God Save the Queen" - I remember these songs as virtually indistinguishable. (In some mysterious way, standing on guard for the true north strong and free involved helping God save the Queen when necessary.) On some mornings we were even allowed to sing the more inspiring "The Maple Leaf Forever", which told of "Wolfe the dauntless hero", who "planted firm Britannia's flag on Canada's fair domain".[10]

The conscription that takes place in the schools, which is helped along by ignorance transmission of various kinds, clearly is not simply a matter of being signed up for the army. The readiness to go to war, on behalf of the state or on behalf of the "mother country" (imperialist power), is only the final test, not the full extent, of this conscription. Students are adapted and made loyal to numerous aspects of the social and economic order in which they live, including, for example, the capitalist economy and associated values and structures. Now, it is not surprising that students do not emerge from our schools with loyalties to Marxism, or to other ideologies that challenge capitalism. What is less obvious, however, is the extent to which they are trained to positive incomprehension of such ideologies. It is not a matter of students being denied a "course" in Marxism, but rather that the realities of class division, capitalism and imperialism upon which modern Marxism and other anti-capitalist ideologies take their stand are systematically obscured. Can someone who was taught, as I was, to perceive the non-European world as the bride ("Canada's fair domain") lying in wait for the British bridegroom ("Wolfe the dauntless hero") possibly be said to have understood British imperialism? Can someone who has been taught what it feels like to imperialize but not what it feels like to be imperialized be said to have grasped the essence of imperialism? Our education is Cold War education. It gives people systematic and thorough incomprehension of the ideological bases of Eastern bloc countries. It is also counter-revolutionary education, for it is not merely Eastern bloc countries to whom terms such as imperialism and class oppression have meaning. To much of the Third World, now struggling to de-colonize (which includes attaining freedom from neo-colonialism), these realities are central. A person emerging from our educational system may hear a word such as imperialism as jargon, empty syllables; but to many in the Third World this term has precise, devastating meaning. The fact that we are educating our youth to be unable to understand the language of the oppressed would not have anything to do with the fact that we are in the camp of the oppressors, would it?

I have said that the conscription the schools engage in is, in part, a soporific activity, and I have justified the use of the term "soporific" by referring to ignorance transmission. But public school education is soporific in another sense as well. It induces sleep not only in the intellect but also in the will. Probably the most powerful way this happens is not through the content of the lesson (even if we use the word "content" to include the point of view from which facts are given) but through the "process" whereby the lesson is given, or the context in which it is delivered. We can use Marshall McLuhan's language and say that "the medium is the message" (the so-called content in a learning situation may be less crucial to what is learned than the medium in which the context is suspended),[11] or we can use more orthodox sociological language and speak of the social roles that are learned during the education/socialization process. Either way the picture is clear: if we feed information to a passive audience of children over a period of years they will learn, regardless of the menu (the "content), to be passive consumers of information.[12]

Imagine a class of high school students receiving a lesson on democracy. Democracy is the content of the lesson. The process, however, will be largely determined by the institutional context within which the learning occurs, and the social roles, hierarchies and so on that are part of that institutional context. High schools are seldom democratic; many, in fact, are virtually totalitarian in their functioning. To the extent that the medium is the message, therefore, the students will be learning to connect the word "democracy" with an undemocratic reality. They will end up with emotional attachments to the word "democracy" and to some concepts and practices loosely associated with this word but will in a deeper sense be conditioned to behave pretty much like members of an authoritarian state.

In this way the conscription of young people is perfected. They are disempowered, and hence made into obedient and docile citizens, by the context in which their learning takes place, and their disempowerment is made complete by the fact that this context is largely unperceived - part of the hidden curriculum[13] of the schools.

The university as a soporific institution

In the university we will not as commonly find blatant conscription; in fact, the impression is often one of unbiased enquiry, free thinking and pure research. Not only is the content of the lesson less parochial, but the educational process is also generally less repressive. Perhaps this is the educator's dream come true: pure knowledge transmission and awakening of minds? Unfortunately, this is not the case, as we begin to see when we examine the belief system of the academic subculture. This subculture, of which the university faculty constitute the chief members, propagates its values through university education. By sifting and shaping people through a meritocratic system it produces new faculty members and thus continually reproduces itself. (Some professors consider the preservation of the subculture their main educational task.) But beyond this it transmits its ideals and beliefs widely by educating and socializing people destined for other roles in society. Hence the belief system in this subculture is very important. The following ten propositions seem to me expressive of this system.

(1) Knowledge *per se* is good, and the more knowledge produced the better.

(2) To know something is to effect something, and to have written about a problem is to have dealt with it.

(3) The job of academics, which is to produce as much knowledge as possible, is a noble one.

(4) Academics and students know when they are doing their jobs well, and hence when they are living the way they ought to, by the rewards (grades, status, money) that they receive.

(5) The natural divisions of the world, and consequently of knowledge about the world, are reflected in the internal divisions of the university into faculties, departments and fields.

(6) A person can know only one thing well and should therefore "specialize". (Within the university pre-existing divisions readily indicate the possible directions of such specialization.)

(7) The university is an ideologically and politically neutral institution.

(8) Important social problems, especially "world" problems, are complex and difficult and need much research, and the only people qualified to do this are people with advanced degrees. After all, if such problems were not complex and difficult they would have been solved long ago and their solutions

implemented.

(9) Although the university is a meritocracy within a society that is supposed to be a democracy, this is not a problem. Meritocracy is the real meaning of democracy.

(10) To know truly is to know objectively. This requires banishing, as far as possible, the subject (and hence "subjectivity") from both the knower and the known.

Please note that I do not claim that these beliefs are always openly acknowledged, only that they are underlying, operative beliefs in the subculture. Below I offer ten counter-propositions.

(1) Knowledge is seldom _per se_. In the actual world it is common for it to be controlled, "owned" by groups of people, in whose hands it may be irrelevant or destructive to most human (and other) beings. Increased production of knowledge is not, therefore, necessarily good.

(2) To know something is to know it, period. Whether or not anything will be effected through this knowledge depends upon the answers to a number of questions, including: To whom will this knowledge be transmitted? Will they be encouraged to make use of it and shown how to do so? Will there exist the conditions (social, economic, moral, cultural, etc.) appropriate to its being put to use? For similar reasons, to have written about a problem is to have written about it, period.

(3) Given the previous two points, the production of knowledge is obviously not always a noble task. The job of the academic, like many jobs, often does people (and other beings) more harm than good.

(4) There is no correlation between job competence, however determined, and morality.

(5) There are many ways of dividing up the world and of classifying the

objects and modes of knowing. The ways that have been chosen and concretized in educational institutions have depended not merely on the objective structure of the world but on a variety of other factors, such as cultural tradition and prejudice, the requirements of the economic order, and the interests of controlling groups.

(6) People can know and understand many things, and they can know and understand a given thing well only when attention is given to its context and its relations with other things. Specialization is obviously valid in principle, but it is often used as a means of social control. Specialists frequently give up knowledge of, and control over, the context, significance and end use of their products.

(7) North American universities are, for the most part, well integrated into their societies. This means that they tend to serve the existing order well, being loyal to the state, loyal to the capitalist economy,[14] and loyal to a world order dependent on massive inequality and exploitation. The myth of the ideological and political neutrality of the university is an important one, however, bringing to university personnel the ignorance crucial for their co-option.

(8) Some social problems, including "world" problems, are complex and some are not. Some that require neither degrees nor advanced training in order to be understood have not been solved - or have been solved but the solutions not implemented - because it is not in the interests of controlling groups that this should happen.

(9) Democracy is government by the people, not government by people with "merit". People trained to be good members of a meritocracy will be poor members of a democracy.

(10) Leaving your own mortal, fallible, feeling self at home and pretending

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to be subject-less is bureaucracy masquerading as the search for truth. It is the bureaucrat, the "professional", who denies her/his subjectness and that of others, not the seeker of truth. People's inner life is part of the real world and to ignore it is to choose to remain ignorant of what is real. Persons cannot truly know other persons unless at some point they commune as subjects.

Some of the original ten beliefs are probably held only by the academic subculture. They serve the function of co-opting and controlling this potentially subversive group. Others, however, are successfully transmitted beyond the subculture - in part, perhaps, because other institutions (including the schools) transmit the same or similar beliefs and hence join to impress them deeply on students' minds. It should be clear from the counter-propositions I have offered that I take issue with all ten beliefs and consider them soporific. They induce ignorance in people, allowing them to learn a great many facts while remaining innocent of the context and significance of this learning. This is meaningful ignorance transmission, which results in a state of mind where people either do not question, or question but do not act against, the current order. This order, I contend, is one which is built upon, and requires, war and injustice, and this means that the university's conscription of people is just as serious as the school's. Because it is more subtle, it may be even more dangerous.

I would argue that the cumulative effect of the ten propositions is to produce in people the conviction that they are doing what has to be done in the world when they are working competently at their occupation, assured of the goodness of this by rewards they receive. Such people will be able to do that one thing well and will be content to leave other issues, especially very important ones, to those with the relevant occupation and specialization -

to experts, in short. For every problem there must, after all, be a corresponding expert somewhere. And the experts will give their objective, disinterested advice, after which the problem will be solved and all will be well. In these propositions I believe we begin to see what Kozol calls the university's "unique co-optive powers" and its "unique capacities for subtle and sometimes only half-perceived domestication".[15]

To conclude: the schools and the universities are not merely, as some like to put it, "knowledge factories"; they are also ignorance factories. They do not merely promote insight but also sleep, in the intellect and the will. When we teach and learn in this environment we must strive to remain aware of this and to resist these soporific tendencies. This is especially true if we are so audacious as to tackle the issues of peace and justice. Of course there is a kind of peace education that is distinguishable from other areas of concentration in the university only by its explicit content and, to a lesser extent, some of its research methods. But if we are seriously interested in working towards peace and justice within the context of the university we must examine not only what we are teaching or learning, but how we are teaching or learning it. We must think not only about "peace" but about "education". If we agree that education in our schools and universities adapts people, not only through its content but through its process and its underlying belief system, to a world in which war and injustice are the norm, we will not be content to tack on a new course or two to existing offerings with due effort to make them look respectable to colleagues and authorities, but will insist on challenging the central thrust of this education.

Notes

(1) The word "educate" comes from the Latin educare, "to rear, bring up".

(2) This is a standard observation, even a starting point, for much sociology of education. See, for example, D.F. Swift, The Sociology of Education: Introductory Analytical Perspectives (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1969),p. 8.

(3) This is from the primer of M. Lavisse (twenty-first edition, 1889), quoted by Tolstoy in his "On Patriotism", written in 1894. See Tolstoy's Writings on Civil Disobedience and Non-Violence (London: Peter Owen, 1967), pp. 71-73.

(4) For some recent examples from U.S. school textbooks, see William L. Griffen and John Marciano, Teaching the Vietnam War (Montclair, N.J.: Allanheld, Osmun & Co., 1979).

(5) The Night is Dark and I am Far from Home (New York: Bantam, 1977), pp. 60-61.

(6) The estimates are from Basil Davidson, The African Slave Trade (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1980), pp. 95-98.

(7) Harriet Beecher Stowe's Uncle Tom's Cabin contributed to the anti-slavery movement in the U.S. in part by simply showing blacks as subjects, and especially as subjects with the capacity to suffer. Peter Kropotkin, writing of nineteenth century Russia, describes a similar situation: "Human feelings were not recognized, not even suspected, in serfs, and when Turgueneff published his little story 'Mumu', and Grigorovich began to issue his thrilling novels, in which he made his readers weep over the misfortunes of the serfs, it was to a great number of persons a startling revelation. They love just as we do; is it possible? exclaimed the sentimental

ladies who could not read a French novel without shedding tears over the troubles of the noble heroes and heroines." Memoirs of a Revolutionist (New York: Grove Press, 1970; originally published 1898-1899 in The Atlantic Monthly), p.57.

(8) Imperialism itself,usually saturated with racism, has been responsible for genocide on a massive scale. As Irving Horowitz says: "One of the fundamental characteristics of nineteenth century European imperialism was its systematic destruction of communities outside the "mother country" . . . The conduct of classic colonialism was invariably linked with genocide". Genocide: State Power and Mass Murder (New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Books, 1976), pp. 19-20.

(9) Jonathan Kozol, Death at an Early Age (New York: Bantam, 1968), pp. 201-202.

(10) Mind you, I am talking about the period from the mid-1950's to the mid-1960's. Given the ongoing decline in Britain's fortunes and the increase in a sort of pseudo-nationalism in Canada, less school time is being spent now on recruitment into the Commonwealth.

(11) See McLuhan's Understanding Media (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), Chapter 1. See also the use Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner make of McLuhan in their Teaching as a Subversive Activity (New York: Dell, 1969), Chapter 2 and throughout.

(12) On the subject of obedience training in the schools, see Harry Gracey's article, "Learning the Student Role: Kindergarten as Academic Boot Camp", in Holger Stub, ed., The Sociology of Education (Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1975), pp.82-95.

(13) "Hidden curriculum" is a term that has become widely used in works in the sociology of education to refer to the "norms and values that are implicitly, but effectively, taught in schools, and that are

not usually talked about in teachers' statements of ends or goals". See Michael Apple, "The Hidden Curriculum and the Nature of Conflict", ibid., p.269.

(14) Much has been written on the relations between the capitalist economy and schooling (and the university in particular). See, for example, Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis, Schooling in Capitalist America (New York: Basic Books, 9176); David Smith, Who Rules the Universities? (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1974); Randle Nelsen and David Nock, ed., Reading, Writing and Riches (Kitchener, Ont.: Between the Lines, 1978).

(15) Free Schools (New York: Bantam, 1972), p. 94.

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

by
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to develop and assess priority directions for the maintenance and improvement of quality in adult and continuing education programmes.

The theoretical framework for this study combined quality assurance approaches from business and industry, from formal education, and from adult and continuing education.

The development of priority directions was accomplished by the use of the Delphi Technique, administered to deans, directors, and chairpersons of continuing education units in universities and community colleges in the Province of Ontario. The Delphi process consisted of three sequential questionnaires, completed by 50 percent of the respondent panel.

The result of this study was the development of 25 priority directions for quality maintenance and improvement. The top seven priority directions were: increasing institutional awareness and responsiveness to adult needs and requirements; increasing support service for adults returning to learning; developing effective liaisons and contacts with outside organizations; preparing a clear mandate, purpose and parameter for continuing education in post-secondary institutions; preparing decision makers at all levels for the new and greater demands continuing education will face; developing a process for determining community needs and wants; and increasing teacher development programmes.

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that quality assurance in adult and continuing education at the present time consists of context and input thrusts. Secondly, the organizational position continuing education units occupy, was seen as influencing quality levels. Lastly, a definition of quality assurance in adult and continuing education was developed.

INTRODUCTION

During the 1970s and 1980s, adult and continuing education in North America has undergone considerable growth. Many adults are now participating in organized learning activities provided by formal education agencies. The provision of adult and continuing education is no longer a locally based activity provided by small organizations on an ad hoc basis. Accompanying this growth, there is increasing concern regarding the quality of courses and programmes offered to adult learners.

Meeting the diverse needs of adults in a changing society means that continuing education will progressively expand. Lenz foresees continuing education as being produced by larger and larger organizations. She states that "Adult Education, like automobiles and frozen food, will be produced mainly by complex corporate structures...(which are) susceptible to all the ills of bigness as well as whatever blessings are conferred by sheer size".[1] Her concern is with the quality of offerings from large organizations. "The question of scale is critical to education in a democracy, which has yet to solve the problem of maintaining quality while serving a mass public. In the field of continuing education, the problem is intensifying as this segment of the educational system grows by leaps and bounds".[2] The question of quality is of paramount importance in continuing education today, and will be of greater concern in the future.

Is it possible for continuing education to meet the needs of the predicted new learning society, while at the same time ensuring that quality standards are met? How can an adult/continuing education administrator, operating under a variety of restraints and demands, be sure that the programmes he/she is offering are of a quality level appropriate to the needs of the participants, of sponsoring organizations, and of society in general?

Inherent in the design, development and delivery of continuing education programmes, are factors that are unique to adult education; foremost is the voluntary nature of adult learning. It has been said that adults will "vote with their feet; if they don't like a particular learning experience, they will complain, and if not satisfied they will leave".[3] The voluntarism, therefore, has a pervasive effect upon all decisions made and procedures carried out by continuing education administrators.

The goal of continuing education administrators in post-secondary institutions is to produce programmes and courses that are of a suitable level of quality to attract and to maintain the participation of individuals and of sponsoring organizations.

A common definition of quality is "fitness for use as judged by the user".[4] Adults, as users of education, are entitled to receive quality offerings from educational institutions. It is the responsibility of these same institutions to assure that quality is maintained in the programmes, courses, and related services offered to adult learners. Continuing education administrators face, as one of their major responsibilities, the maintenance and improvement of quality in programmes offered to adult learners.

Adult and continuing education, however, does not always occupy a central position within the organizational structure of which it is a part. To the contrary, continuing education, as Knowles states, "(has) emerged with and continues to occupy a secondary status in the institutional hierarchy".[5] This status can have profound effects upon the ability of continuing education units to function effectively and efficiently. Specifically, marginal status could hinder the efforts of continuing education units to assure the quality of offerings to adult learners.[6]

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Quality assurance has been examined in the fields of business and industry, formal education, and adult/continuing education. It would appear, however, that the concept of quality assurance in adult and continuing education is still in a developmental stage and requires basic research.

In the field of business and industry, quality assurance, or quality control, is well developed. Two approaches appear to dominate the literature: the technical approach and the human relations approach. The technical approach is illustrated by Preshing: "Total quality control begins with the standards and specifications established by product design and ends with a completed up-to-standards product leaving the factory."[7] The human relations approach deals with the factors promoting workmanship, which in turn increase the quality of the product. Archer[8], and Lester[9] have contributed to the literature in this respect, as have Feigenbaum[10] and Hagan.[11] These authors emphasize the fact that quality control consists of various processes established by the organization for the maintenance and improvement of product quality.

Formal education, built upon a structured, traditional approach to the dissemination of knowledge, and to the attainment of minimum levels of knowledge by graduates, has borrowed from business and industrial models of quality assurance. Conner and Lessinger have developed quality control schemes for use in a formal educational setting.[12] Their work on the development of standards, planning and control, efficiency and effectiveness and the concepts of breakthrough and sporadic and chronic problems does much to advance the use of quality assurance principles and practices in formal education. Taylor's work emphasizes the system determinants of quality in formal education, by examining the necessary elements for maintaining system quality.[13]

The nature of adult and continuing education necessitates the adoption of a different approach to the question of quality assurance. In this regard, work has been done on quality in off-campus programmes by Honan[14], the California State Postsecondary Education Commission[15], and Andrews.[16] In the area of distance and correspondence education, Wedemeyer[17] developed a process for quality assurance, and Kaufman[18] has done work on quality control in course development processes. Paulsen[19] reported on an approach to Short Term Skill Training programmes that will help to overcome the problem of low quality in programmes offered by institutions in conjunction with private organizations.

In the area of programme development in adult education, Reece and Braden developed a method of improving the programme development process, by reducing costs and increasing quality.[20] Finally, an attempt at formulating voluntary quality control guidelines for continuing education programmes in the State of Pennsylvania, was reported by the Pennsylvania State Library, Harrisburg.[21]

Quality assurance in adult and continuing education is an issue that must be addressed if practitioners are to provide adults with learning activities commensurate with individual, organizational, and societal expectations regarding the suitability of these activities. Quality itself is difficult to define; however, it is possible to develop administrative directions that will maintain and improve the quality level of courses and programmes offered to adults.

METHODOLOGY

The study described in this paper was an attempt to develop priority directions for the maintenance and improvement of quality in adult/continuing education. With this objective, a survey was undertaken of adult and continuing administrators in post-secondary institutions in the Province of Ontario. Both universities and community colleges were included and a population of forty respondents, consisting of sixteen university and twenty-four community college administrators were surveyed. Because of the geographical dispersion of the respondents, the need to develop priority directions and to reach a consensus regarding these directions, a three phase Delphi Technique was used.

The Delphi Technique is an intuitive methodology for organizing and sharing 'expert' forecasts about the future. Specifically, it is a method for the systematic solicitation and collation of judgements on a particular topic through a set of carefully designed sequential questionnaires interspersed with summarized information and feedback of opinions derived from earlier responses.[22]

The Delphi Technique has been utilized in adult education for various purposes. Hoare reports on two studies using this technique: Bunning used the Delphi in a 1976 study to determine common skills and knowledge that will be needed by adult educators in order to successfully fulfill their roles and Masters in a 1975 study used the Delphi to identify alternative futures for continuing education.[23] Coincident with the present study, a Delphi study designed to determine priorities, problems and challenges, and benefits in international adult education was being conducted by Cookson, of the Adult Education Research Centre at the University of British Columbia.[24]

Finally, a similar study dealing with the future of adult education, this time on a provincial basis, was conducted by Aitken in 1975. The purpose was to develop a Delphi forecast regarding the future for adult education in British Columbia.[25]

The Delphi Technique has potential for use in formal education and in adult education in the development of priority directions pertaining to policy issues. Weaver suggests that the Delphi is needed for two reasons. As he states..."educational thinking must take into account more of the future than is typical now" and secondly..."factors that are viewed as decisive in the current state of affairs may not be the most significant factors to consider for the long-term commitment of educational resources, or in shaping educational plans and policies".[26]

Furthermore, Martin, in discussing the use of the Delphi in studies in education, refers to Weaver's conclusion that the Delphi shows its greatest promise as a method of making people think about the future in a more complex manner than they ordinarily would. More specifically, Martin states, "Weaver feels the method is used most effectively as a planning tool to aid in probing priorities held by the constituencies of an organization".[27]

Finally, Weaver states in relation to the potential of the Delphi Technique, "...the way to get educators to make better decisions...is to enhance their capacity to think in complex ways about the future, and Delphi seems ideally suited to such a purpose".[28]

The major characteristic of the Delphi Technique is the collection of a great quantity of information, which must then be organized into a useable form. To facilitate the data collection process, respondents in this study were asked to answer the initial Delphi question within the structure of a limited response. This was accomplished in two ways: first, responses were limited to five to ten words; second, four trigger words were provided, to stimulate thought and to define the nature of the statements desired.[29]

The Delphi question was:

> OVER THE NEXT FIVE YEARS, IN ORDER TO MAINTAIN AND IMPROVE THE QUALITY OF PROGRAMMES, ADULT/CONTINUING ADMINISTRATORS SHOULD CONCENTRATE ON:
> DEVELOPING:
> PREPARING:
> INCREASING:
> SOLVING

FINDINGS

The results of the survey, completed by 20 respondents (a 50 percent return rate) yielded the data shown in TABLE 1.

These 25 priority directions indicate the actions that adult and continuing education administrators identified as being important to quality assurance in adult and continuing education. Column 1 gives the priority directions as determined by weighted values, while column 2 gives the sum of the frequency of respondent choices. The weighted values were determined by ranking the seven most important priority directions on a scale of 7-1.

Based on the final vote totals, the top seven priority directions warranted further examination and clarification. This was done by analyzing the original comments of respondents given during the first phase of the study. These original comments are listed below for clarification of consensus decisions.

TABLE I

PRIORITY DIRECTIONS FOR MAINTENANCE AND IMPROVEMENT OF QUALITY: FINAL VOTE TOTAL, AND RESPONDENT TOTAL

	Priority Direction	Final Vote Total Weighted Values (140 max.)	Respondent Total (n.=20)
1.	Increasing institutional awareness and responsiveness to the unique, legitimate needs and requirements of the growing number of adult part-time students.	96	19
2.	Increasing support services for adults returning to learning (counselling, study sessions, information, encouragement).	63	14
3.	Developing effective liaisons and contacts with organizations (business, industry, government) that have training needs or can provide expertise.	51	12
4.	Preparing a clear mandate, purpose and parameter for continuing education in universities and colleges versus other institutions/organizations.	46	9
5.	Preparing decision makers at all levels for the new and greater demands that will be placed on continuing education as a result of a changing job market, an aging population, etc.	40	10
6.	Developing a process for determining the kinds of programs the community wants and needs.	39	9
7.	Increasing teacher development programs, for new and existing staff, in the area of content and technique, to increase the quality of instruction and overcome deficiencies in performance.	38	9

TABLE 1

Priority Direction	Final Vote Total Weighted Values (140 max.)	Respondent Total (n.=20)
8. Developing alternate delivery systems to solve the facility problem, enhance non-traditional student access, and be more effective than traditional modes.	28	10
9. Developing courses and programmes, both general and job-related, offered at untraditional times - Night College, Weekend College, Summer Sessions, to overcome access problems and to use resources continuously.	23	8
10. Increasing the quality monitoring process (gauging effectiveness of new teaching technologies, reviewing results, attention to teacher prepared materials).	20	7
11. Increasing the promotion (marketing plans and strategies) of lifelong learning.	14	5
12. Solving the problem of insufficient institutional support of continuing education.	13	6
13. Increasing development funding for new programmes and projects.	13	4
14. Developing contemporary and market related courses to meet specific needs (short post-secondary programmes).	13	3
15. Developing light organizational structures capable of handling constant change.	12	2
16. Solving problems and developing courses in and with the new, high technology.	10	2

TABLE 1

	Priority Direction	Final Vote Total Weighted Values (140 max.)	Respondent Total (n.=20)
17.	Developing long-range plans for course offerings.	9	2
18.	Increasing the awareness of the internal and external communities of the commitment to quality offerings.	7	1
19.	Preparing well-considered curricula relevant to adult student needs and learning processes.	6	1
20.	Developing public policies to solve the problem of inconsistent government funding practices and planned cutbacks causing the present financial dilemma and strained budgetary considerations.	5	2
21.	Preparing better evaluation methods to provide useful information, and to better identify requirements of teachers and learners.	5	1
22.	Developing cost-effective administrative procedures (perhaps computerized) to eliminate red tape and to streamline all procedures, and preparing support staff in this regard.	4	1
23.	Preparing systems to recognize previous training for life experience.	2	1
24.	Preparing new marketing strategies vis-a-vis private sector (profit oriented) training agencies.	2	1
25.	Developing methods of predicting educational trends.	1	1
		560	140

Priority Direction #1 - Original Comments

'Increasing institutional awareness and responsiveness to the unique, legitimate needs and requirements of the growing number of adult part-time students', was chosen as the first priority direction for the maintenance and improvement of quality in post-secondary continuing education programmes. The comments from which this statement was compiled indicate the actions and activities that respondents perceive as constituting the component parts of this priority direction. The following are the original comments regarding this priority direction:

-Preparing the institution to accommodate a much larger percentage of adult learners than they have ever seen before.
-Increasing broad institutional interest in part-time programs/students.
-Solving the fallacy that daytime/full-time student needs are the same as adult part-time students.
-Solving the problem of the institution's regular program administration and faculty not recognizing the validity in part-time studies.
-Developing the awareness of the role of adult education as an integral part of the total college.
-Increasing the degree to which our institutions are truly responsive to the needs of adult learners.
-Increasing administration's awareness of the needs of adult students.
-Preparing and alerting colleagues to the shifting emphasis on the part-time learner (*viz*. facilities, accessibility, etc.).
-Preparing for an increase in the number of adult students.

Priority Direction #2 - Original Comments

The second choice of the respondent group was, 'Increasing support services for adults returning to learning (counselling, study sessions, information, encouragement)'.

The original comments indicate the concerns respondents have regarding this priority direction:

-Developing better counselling services for adult learners.
-Increasing support services for part-time adult students.
-Solving the counselling/coaching dilemma for adult learners confused by choices.
-Increasing the services which assist an adult in retraining and returning to learning - information, how to study, upgrading, counselling, etc.

Priority Direction #3 - Original Comments

The respondent group chose 'Developing effective liaisons and contacts with organizations (business, industry, government) that have training needs or can provide expertise', as the third most important priority direction.

The actions and activities regarded by respondents as being necessary for this priority direction are as follows:

-Developing courses in conjunction with university faculty members or professionals.
-Developing liaisons with organizations/businesses that have training needs or can provide expertise.
-Developing effective contacts with business, industry and government.

Priority Direction #4 - Original Comments

'Preparing a clear mandate, purpose and parameter for continuing education in universities and colleges versus other institutions/organizations' was chosen as fourth priority by respondents.

The original comments from which this statement was developed are as follows:

-Developing new courses and programs that belong at the university (related to existing strengths and purposes).
-Developing well defined (and accepted) parameters of program scope (in conjunction with other institutions).
-Preparing a clear mandate and purpose of continuing education as delivered by universities and community colleges versus YM-YWCA, recreation department, etc.
-Developing a clear mission and set of objectives for programming direction.

Priority Direction #5 - Original Comments

The fifth choice of the respondent group was 'Preparing decision makers at all levels for the new and greater demands that will be placed on continuing education as a result of a changing job market, an aging population, etc.'

The original comments from which this statement was developed are as follows:

-Increasing the perceived importance of adult education in the University system.
-Solving the problem of being seen as being peripheral to the University's 'main functions'.
-Solving the problem of part-time studies/continuing education having a low profile and low priority with both the University administrators and the government.
-Developing a strategy to convince legislators that as the Canadian population ages and as the job market changes,

much greater demands will be placed on continuing education.
-Increasing the support base for adult education in the community.

Priority Direction #6 - Original Comments

The respondent group chose 'Developing a process for determining the kinds of programs the community wants and needs', as the sixth priority direction.

It is interesting to note that this statement developed from only two original comments:

-Developing reliable methods of assessing real program needs.
-Developing a process determining the kinds of programs the community wants.

Priority Direction #7 - Original Comments

The seventh priority direction, and the last to be analyzed from original comments, consists of 'Increasing teacher development programs, for new and existing staff, in the area of content and technique, to increase the quality of instruction and overcome deficiencies in performance'.

The original comments for this statement were many:

-Preparing faculty to meet the needs of adult students in courses.
-Increasing professional development opportunities in adult education for professors teaching the courses.
-Solving what to do with the instructor suffering from 'burnout' and won't recognize it.
-Preparing new instructors for teaching the adult learner.
-Preparing teachers to be flexible and current.
-Increasing expertise in teaching of adults via train the trainer programs.
-Preparing faculty for the development and teaching of existing and new courses.
-Increasing quality of instruction.
-Developing flexible teacher training packages to assist practitioners to become better teachers.
-Preparing teacher development programs.
-Developing professional development programs for teachers of adults in the evening.
-Preparing adult education teachers who are responsive to teaching with new modes and in different environments.
-Solving the problem of much needed human resources renewal opportunities for adult educators.
-Developing the skills of part-time faculty.

-Solving the problem of insufficient staff development for part-time faculty.
-Preparing professional development of present part-time faculty to meet the challenge of the new instructional techniques and resources needed in a changing society.

ANALYSIS

The C.I.P.P. Model, by Stufflebeam, et al.,[30] originally developed for evaluation work, was adapted for use in this study. The model has four components: context, input, process, and product. Boyle has classified the four components as follows:

(1)	context:	the relevant environmental situation
(2)	input:	that which will help to achieve objectives
(3)	process:	activities and related monitoring to achieve objectives
(4)	product:	results, conclusions, output

The literature search conducted for this study revealed that quality assurance approaches vary, depending upon the emphasis placed upon each of the four components.

In an attempt to ascertain the emphasis of continuing education administrators regarding quality assurance, the 25 final priority directions were analyzed according to the above C.I.P.P. components. TABLE 2, presents the final 25 priority directions classified according to the C.I.P.P. Model and shows the following results. Sixteen of the 25 priority directions were classified as being input oriented; actions and activities that will help to achieve quality assurance by their adoption or inclusion into continuing education procedures and processes. Priority directions such as support services, needs processes, alternate delivery systems, and offering programmes at non-traditional times represent additional inputs, that if utilized would maintain and improve the quality level of continuing education.

Six priority directions were classified as being context oriented; actions and activities that would have an effect upon the relevant environmental situation in which adult and continuing education functions. By increasing institutional awareness; developing effective liaisons and contacts with business, industry and government; developing a clear mandate and purpose for continuing education; and preparing decision makers for the new demands that will be placed upon continuing education over the next five years, quality in adult and continuing education could be maintained and improved.

Three priority directions were classified as being process oriented; having to do with the activities and monitoring needed to achieve quality. Teacher development, quality monitoring, and improved evaluation would have a bearing upon the actual learning activities conducted by post-secondary institutional providers of continuing education.

TABLE 2

FINAL PRIORITY DIRECTIONS CLASSIFIED BY C.I.P.P. MODEL: CONTEXT, INPUT, PROCESS, PRODUCT (OUTCOMES)

	Priority Directions	Classification:	C-Context I-Input P-Process O-Product
1.	Institutional awareness	C	
2.	Support services	I	
3.	Liaisons and contacts	C	
4.	Mandate and purpose	C	
5.	Decision makers	C	
6.	Needs process	I	
7.	Teacher development	P	
8.	Alternate delivery systems	I	
9.	Untraditional times	I	
10.	Quality monitoring	P	
11.	Increased promotion	I	
12.	Institutional support	I	
13.	Development funding	I	
14.	Contemporary and market courses	I	
15.	Light, organizational structures	I	
16.	New, high technology	I	
17.	Long range plans	I	
18.	Community awareness	C	
19.	Adult curricula	I	
20.	Public policies re funding	C	
21.	Improved evaluation	P	
22.	Cost-effective procedures	I	
23.	Life experience credit	I	
24.	New marketing strategies	I	
25.	Predicting educational trends	I	

Totals:
Context: 6
Input: 16
Process: 3
Product: 0

None of the final priority directions chosen by the respondent group could be classified as being product oriented; that is, pertaining to the product, output or results of continuing education.

It should be noted that four of the top seven priority directions chosen by continuing education administrators in post-secondary institutions are context oriented. Increasing institutional awareness, developing liaisons and contacts, preparing a clear mandate and purpose, and preparing decision makers at all levels, would appear to refer to the relevant environmental situation in which adult and continuing education functions. Consequently, it may be stated that the consensus of the study respondents indicates the importance of improving the relevant environmental situation, if quality is to be assured in adult and continuing education.

Finally, it was found that quality assurance in adult and continuing education differed from that in business and industry and from formal education. Quality assurance in adult and continuing education may be defined as:

> "Quality assurance in adult and continuing education consists of planned, deliberate actions or activities instigated and carried out with the intent and purpose of maintaining and improving the quality of learning for participants".

These planned, deliberate actions and activities must be integrated into a systems approach to quality assurance that emphasizes and is based upon the establishment of priority directions.

The findings of this study indicate that quality assurance in adult and continuing education differs from that in business and industry and in formal education. In business and industry, quality assurance approaches are process and product oriented. Manufacturers are concerned with developing standards, specifications, and tolerance limits, against which the in-process or completed product can be measured. The process of production and the completed product or output, are the two thrusts that dominate industrial quality assurance.

Formal education attempts to approach the issue of quality assurance from input, process and product thrusts. Input consists of the standards and criteria developed for quality measurement; process consists of the actual teaching and learning situations; product refers to how well graduates of formal institutions do in their chosen professions.

Adult and continuing education, however, from the results of this study, would appear to be context, input, and process oriented. Four of the top seven priority directions developed by continuing education administrators were context oriented; 16 of the final 25 priority directions were input oriented; 3 of the final 25 priority directions were process oriented.

As stated earlier, adult and continuing education is, in most post-secondary institutions, a marginal entity. As Knox states,

> "The agency is typically a dependent unit of an organization with major purposes other than the education of adults. This

> marginality increases the competition for resources within the parent organization".[31]

The predominance of context and input approaches to quality assurance by respondents in this study, could be related to the marginal position the adult/continuing education unit occupies within the parent organization. Examination of the priority directions classified as being context oriented would seem to bear this out. Increasing institutional awareness; developing effective liaisons and contacts with business, industry, and government; preparing a clear mandate, purpose and parameter for continuing education; preparing decision makers at all levels for the new and greater demands on continuing education; increasing the awareness of the internal and external communities of the commitment to quality offerings; and developing public policies to solve the problem of inconsistent government funding practices, all appear to be an attempt to strengthen the relevant environmental situation in which continuing education operates.

Secondly, the emphasis on inputs as a means of maintaining and improving programme quality, would appear to indicate the need for those resources, actions, and activities that have not yet become part of the operating base of adult and continuing education units. The need for increased support services, development of a process for determining community wants and needs, increased teacher development, alternate delivery systems, and courses and programmes offered at non-traditional times, indicate the still emerging nature of adult and continuing education units with post-secondary institutions. The other input priority directions chosen would appear to substantiate the conclusion that adult and continuing education within post-secondary education does not always receive the resources needed to carry out the purpose with which it has been entrusted.

Finally, it would appear that a system of quality assurance, as defined by this study, established for adult and continuing education at the present time should emphasize priority directions that are context and input oriented. It is foreseen that, should adult and continuing education move to a position of greater centrality within the parent organizational structure, the thrust of the quality assurance priority directions would become more process and product oriented.

IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this study, based on the findings developed through the Delphi Technique, are as follows:

1. Administrators of post-secondary adult and continuing education units, should base decisions regarding budgeting, resource allocation, and unit objectives, on the priority directions established in this study for the maintenance and improvement of quality. The use of these priority directions as guidelines for decision making will result in more effective and efficient use of resources in the long run.

2. Quality maintenance and improvement at present appear to be related to the organizational position continuing education units occupy.

Specifically, a position of marginality within the parent organization causes continuing education units to perceive the environment in which they function as determining the level of quality they are able to achieve. University and community college regular programme administrators, therefore, must be made more aware of the human, physical, and financial resource needs of adult and continuing education. A concerted effort should also be made to raise the institutional perception of adult and continuing education as being a legitimate, and necessary, activity.

3. Quality assurance in this study was found to consist of context, input, and process thrusts. Context and input appear to be more dominant at this time, however, with context being rated more highly, though input was chosen more frequently. This implies that those actions and activities that will help to achieve the context oriented priority directions should have precedence over actions and activities facilitating input oriented priority directions.

IN CONCLUSION

The findings of this study appear to indicate that the maintenance and improvement of quality in adult and continuing education depend upon the implementation by administrators of priority directions established for this purpose. By adopting a predominantly context-oriented approach to quality assurance, practitioners could ensure that the relevant environmental situation in which adult and continuing education functions is improved to the extent that adult and continuing education becomes more central to the goals and objectives of institutions and of society.

The priority directions developed as a result of this research project constitute the actions and activities administrators perceive as being important to the future of adult and continuing education. A coordinated approach to the issue of quality assurance would ensure that adults do receive proper value for the investment they put into their education. To do less would be to shirk our responsibilities as adult educators.

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ADULTS' PRIOR LEARNING

An Overview of Various Methods of Recognition

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INTRODUCTION

Today, the providers of education belong to various fields of competence, and adults learn from volunteer work, community services, homemaking, and many other forms of activities. These adults, due to changes in their interests and needs, seek a recognition for this prior learning, and then make a re-entry on the job market, get a promotion or return to college and university. Therefore, scientific methods have been developed to help adults make the proof of evidence of their competence. The recognition of Experiential Learning means: giving official credit for knowledge which has been acquired through means other than formal courses of study. The purpose of this paper is to present the main ways used to recognize adults' prior experience and will look at the general rules, the necessary conditions to fulfill this request and will give an overview of some successful experiences.

1. BRIEF HISTORY

After the Second World War, American soldiers requested that the skills they had learned during their military service and the courses they had followed to perform their various tasks be taken into account in order to avoid duplication of learning.

For the first time, the Armed Forces, the State, colleges and universities, community groups as well as business and industries got together in order to find possible ways to recognize the experiential learning of these people.

Later, the adult population in general i.e. the people involved in paid work following numerous social changes, wanted to go back to school and obtain credits for what they already knew. A few years later, women involved in non-paid activities, such as homemaking, volunteer work, and community services, felt they should obtain official recognition for their contribution to the family and society.

If we consider these three types of moves in their request to support recognition of experiential learning, we can trace official recognition back to approximately 1945. But in the United States, it is mainly since the 70s that adults in general and later women in particular, can benefit of opportunities to seek a degree which will take into account what they already know.

The growing demand for the recognition of experiential learning is demonstrated by the opening of CAEL "The Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning" (1974) which recently changed its name to "The Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning". This center located in Columbia, Maryland, is the result of a research project undertaken by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) of Princeton, New Jersey. The financing of CAEL was first guaranteed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, followed shortly after by the Ford Foundation, the Lilly Endownement and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-secondary Education.

Stanley (1980) mentions that in 1980, more than 300 institutions and hundreds of individuals, all members of CAEL, contributed through research toward the improvement of practices which lead to the accreditation of prior learning.

A growing interest in non-traditional education seems to be the turning point which has opened the academic world to this question of recognition of experiential learning. This particular kind of education gets its definition from "The Commission on Non-Traditional Study" (1973, p. XV) as an education which allows a diversity of learning opportunities offered to an individual, more than the uniform practices, which tend to diminish the importance of time, space and academic pre-requisites to the benefit of competence and performance.

2. DEFINITIONS OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Before elaborating on this topic, it is important to explain and give definitions of what we mean by Experiential Learning:

Experiential learning has been defined as "learning in which the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied. It is contrasted with learning in which the learner only reads about, hears about, talks about, or writes about these realities but never comes in contact with them as part of the learning process" (Keeton & Tate; 1978). Thus experiential learning usually occurs outside of the classroom although as Stanley (1980) has pointed out, "the classroom also provides experiential settings." Regardless of where learning occurs, it is considered experiential if the person has learned by carrying out actions in a work, leisure or family setting; seeing the effects of those actions, arriving at an understanding of a general principle; and applying this principle in new circumstances (Coleman; 1976).

The two major forms of experiential learning are:

- Sponsored experiential learning such as field work and internships, which takes place away from the classroom but is planned and/or supervised by a faculty member; and,

- Prior experiential learning, which includes both intention learning, such as self-directed study or non-credit courses, and incidental learning, from paid or unpaid work as well as other life experiences (Ekstrom, 1983).

When adults enter or return to college, they often discover that they know some of the things that are relevant for their educational goals or that would enable them to meet institutional requirements. They may then seek recognition of their prior experience learning. Colleges and universities considering the recognition of experiential learning must decide on a rationale and a method.

3. RATIONALE FOR PROVIDING RECOGNITION OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

When talking about providing recognition of experiential learning, many people resent the idea, arguing that formal education is the only way to learn and also, that schools are now opened to all.

We can reply by saying that the educational process in its traditional way does not answer the needs of the veteran, the housewife who wishes to return to school after several years at home, or the small business owner who wishes to obtain a college degree on a part-time basis (Avakian; 1979). "Providing working people with lateral entry into a collegiate program on the basis of documented noncollegiate learning is an eminently sensible idea," argue Green and Sullivan (1975), "for requirements that result in duplication of learning are unwise use of both human and educational resources."

"What we need to argue," says Seeman (1983) "is that credit should be awarded not to certain experiences, but to the ability to process experience and transfer cognitive and affective perceptions". Stressing the difference between education and learning, he observes "There is a big difference between the student who just goes through an experience, and one who can look at it, process it, analyse it, put it into language and thereby 'own' it."

The increasing use and relevance of educational credentials in the work setting has brought about:

- the need to make the present system more comprehensive; and
- the desire of students to have their learning, whenever or however attained, incorporated into the credit and credentialing system in order to take advantage of subsequent educational opportunities without duplicating educational experiences and wasting personal resources (Miller and Mills; 1978).

The growing need for competence says Hatala (1979) obligates universities and colleges to revise their policies on learning acquired outside the institutions. Doing this, as Stanley (1980) has pointed out, would be an asset to these institutions since higher enrollment from an adult population would increase tuition income. In addition, as Sansregret (1983) notes, the idea of recognizing experiential learning translates into a concern for social justice and fairness to all.

Consequently, it has been argued (Davis and Knapp; 1978) that:

- College level learning should be recognized regardless of where it took place.
- Adults should not be required to take courses meant to bring about learning they have already acquired.
- Non-traditional educational options and programs serve the diverse needs of students.

4. GENERAL RULES EVALUATING AND ACCREDITING PRIOR EXPERIENCE

One of the basic principles that underlies the recognition of prior learning is to give credit where credit is due in relation with educational goals.

In other words, we could say that credit is not given according to a number of years of experience in a specific kind of work or in a community service or a leisure activity. Credit is given in relation to the learning outcomes from experience, rather than for the experience itself. Credit is given for verifiable learning (Empire State College; 1983).

Example: An adult who has done bookkeeping for approximately 10 years with chartered accountants, cannot claim 10 years of prior experience for repetitive and routine work. He would claim recognition of the skills he has learned to master over those ten years in relation with a business administration program, or of any other skills pertaining to related courses or programs.

Another principle supporting the recognition of experiential learning is the demonstration or the proof of evidence that one can present in order to receive official recognition of prior learning in relation with educational goals.

5. WAYS TO RECOGNIZE PRIOR EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The assessment of prior experience learning may require techniques that are not used in assessing traditional learning as well as familiar methods. It is necessary to identify learning experiences, to map the breadth and depth of the learning that occured, to relate this learning to educational standards or occupational requirements, and to demonstrate the quality of this learning in relationship to these standards (Ekstrom; 1983).

- Tests, including both standardized tests specifically designed for the assessment of prior learning and faculty-made (nonstandardized) tests. Among the standardized tests we have the CLEP (College Level Examination Program) from ETS (Educational Testing Service) in Princeton, New Jersey.

- Credit by recommendation for courses offered by business, industry community groups and voluntary organizations. In order to maintain standards of quality toward credit recommendation, the American Council on Education has built up standards since 1945, to evaluate courses offered by the Armed Forces. In 1974, ACE has developed a program to extend the evaluation system to courses offered by civil organizations (ACE). Teams of specialists verify course contents offered informally as well as teachers' curriculum and competence, in order to make sure they meet the criteria corresponding to college-level programs. Every five years, ACE sends specialists to visit these groups who have previously been recognized to ensure that they still meet the established requirements.

- Individualized assessment, using portfolio assessment, interviews, demonstration or other techniques that enable an individual to show what he has learned and is able to do.

This method which helps adults make the proof of evidence of the prior experiential learning by themselves is also an excellent learning opportunity. By developing his portfolio, the adult makes an inventory of his knowledge and capacity, and can determine at the same time, the knowledge he lacks in order to pursue his goals. From both these evidence, he forms a real picture of himself and acquires more confidence in his abilities and in his projects.

The development of the Portfolio is done under the supervision of a counselor who is in general a professional in adult education. Rydell and Irwin (1982) maintain that students need support from the group. These authors observe that due to several steps in this process, candidates need assistance in order to identify, describe and transfer skills and knowledge acquired outside the academic milieu. The development of the Portfolio also includes traditional learning that is officially recognized through transcripts and diplomas from colleges and universities (Sansregret; 1984).

According to Willingham (1977), the portfolio should be done to:

IDENTIFY	Identify college level learning acquired through life experience
ARTICULATE	Explain how and what parts of that learning are related to the degree objective.
DOCUMENT	Verify or provide evidence of learning.
MEASURE	Determine the extent and character of learning acquired.
EVALUATE	Decide whether the learning meets an acceptable standard and determine its credit equivalence.
TRANSCRIBE	Record the credit or recognition of the learning.

Looking at the three main ways to evaluate and credit prior experiential learning, it can be said that each method has its advantages and disadvantages. Tests which are the most widely used form of assessment of prior learning, seem best suited for assessing intentional learning, such as self-directed study. Standardized tests provide a means of comparing student. The credit recommendations provide a quick and easy way of recognizing the learning in non credit courses; however, in this case, the course is being evaluated rather than the learner. The portfolio method, which was developed for assessment of prior incidental learning, offers the greatest flexibility (Sansregret & Ekstrom; 1984).

6. SUCCESSFUL EXPERIENCES

Many successful experiences exist throughout the United States, in colleges as well as in universities, and a variety of material is becoming available to help these institutions assess prior experiential learning.

The New York Empire State College (1983) offers their adult clientele a possibility to design from their prior learning a program of studies in relation with their educational goals. Information sessions are offered to adults, to discuss future projects, and how they make the link between their formal learning and what they have learned outside the academic milieu. Identification and verification of prior college-level learning is made possible with the help of the faculty. By 1983, eight thousand (8,000) ESC students had completed their portfolios.

The Vermont State Colleges (1979) have developed a method to provide recognition of prior experiential learning that can be applied in any college throughout the State of Vermont. The adult students are invited to prepare a portfolio under the guidance of a counselor/instructor. This portfolio gathers the learning that has resulted from a student's experiences since high school, i.e. experience which occured other than under the supervision or sponsorship of a college or university.

"The Office of External Programs was authorized in November 1975 by the Vermont State Colleges' Board of Trustees to award college credit to adult learners who have demonstrated college-level competences." The Office of External Programs does not award degrees, but will award credit (Vermont State Colleges, Office of External Programs, Montpelier, Vermont).

An assessment course is offered in a particular semester but the Portfolio will not be assessed until the following semester.

At Thomas A. Edison College, in Trenton, New Jersey (1981), potential adult students with the help of an advisor, can also take advantage of the assessment methods to identify and tabulate the learning outcomes from prior experience. A Student Handbook has been prepared for this matter.

At the University of the State of New York (1983), the Regents External Degree Programs has prepared a series of self-assessment and self-planning exercices. Since 1971, this particular institution has helped more than 20,000 students to obtain a degree.

Elsewhere in the States, colleges and universities build and develop methods to assess adults' prior experiential learning. The Ohio State University, Kansas State University, and San Francisco State University are among other successful experiences to be mentioned.

An interesting fact is the development of specific material to assess women's experiential learning. Homemakers and women involved in non-paid activities such as volunteer work and community services, could not range in the usual scale of evaluation. Therefore, Ruth B. Ekstrom from ETS (Princeton, New Jersey) among other researchers (Dees, Steffen, Sansregret), has built models and tools to evaluate the skills acquired from that non-paid work. Projects HAVE Skills, ACCESS are some of those successful experiences that helped women return to school and/or reintegrate the labor force.

A large volume of literature is now available to people interested in implementing such programs. The CAEL (Columbia, Maryland) through its president Morris Keeton, seems to have become the "heart" of this new approach in adult education.

CONCLUSION

After World War II, the need expressed by the new veterans to have their skills recognized has brought together the different levels of authority throughout the United States, and they created various systems of recognition for prior experiential learning.

This new way of assessment has benefited adults in general, and later women in particular.

The recognition of prior experiential learning is for the "verifiable learning outcomes of experience" (V.C.S.; 1979) to recognize prior experience learning, avoid duplication of learning and help an adult obtain a degree in less time and at a lower cost. It can also mean for the institution an increase in the student population.

Among the main ways to assess prior experiential learning, the Portfolio seems to be the most flexible and the most accurate method since it gathers all possibilities to prove the evidence that learning has taken place.

One of the basic principles of recognition of prior learning is to award credit only where credit is due in direct relation to education and/or working objectives.

This new approach in Adult Education has been successfully implemented troughout the United States, and the Americans are now in the final stage of the overall process which is the standardization of evaluation criteria.

Whichever way we look at the problem, one thing comes back every time: recognition must be given for learning outcomes in relation with goals by experts whose competence is evident using scientifically proven methods.

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ADULT EDUCATION IN SASKATCHEWAN DURING THE THREE PHASES OF SETTLEMENT IN THE TERRITORIAL PERIOD, 1870 TO 1905

By Stewart A. G. Mein

Adult education in Saskatchewan today is an important and thriving part of the lifestyle of the province. Universities, community colleges, a province-wide library system and a host of other agencies all offer a wide range of adult education services to citizens of Saskatchewan, yet little has been done to record how these organizations came to be. Even less is known about past attempts to provide the people of Saskatchewan with adult education services. This paper examines adult education activity in Saskatchewan from 1870 to 1905 when the region was part of the North West Territories. The geographical area studied is that part of the Territories which is included within the present-day province of Saskatchewan, namely the districts of Saskatchewan and Assiniboia.

The districts of Saskatchewan and Assiniboia were two of the administrative districts created in the North West Territories in 1882. The District of Saskatchewan comprised the northern half of the present-day province, from Saskatoon north, and the District of Assiniboia was located in what is now the southern half of the province. Prior to 1882, the region along the banks of the South Saskatchewan River, roughly from Prince Albert to Edmonton, was known as the Saskatchewan district. The region had been known by this name from pre-Canadian days when it had been a part of Rupert's Land, the vast fur-trading empire of the Hudson's Bay Company.

This paper examines adult education in relation to settlement in the West. Three distinct phases of settlement in Saskatchewan during the territorial period are identified in the study and each of the three phases is seen as having had an influence on the development of cultural activity in the region. Adult education is looked upon as being a part of this cultural activity in the West and has been divided into three stages of development, each corresponding to a phase of prairie settlement. The three phases of settlement and of cultural development extended from 1870 to 1882, from 1882 to 1890 and from 1890 to 1905. Although adult education activity took place on Indian reserves, in Metis settlements and among settlers of other ethnic backgrounds, adult education discussed in this paper is primarily limited to that of Canadian and British settlers since it was the values and institutions of these settlers which became the cultural foundations for prairie society in its formative years.

Blenkinsop (1979) identified two types of agrarian adult education in early prairie society. The first of these involved activities which were generated by local groups throughout Saskatchewan. The second type included activities sponsored by government agencies and institutions. In this paper a similar division of adult education is made. By doing so, each of the three stages in the evolution of adult education on the prairies, as it relates to the development of a distinctive prairie culture, can be more easily identified.

The emergence of a distinctive regional culture in the West is one aspect of social development on the prairies which has received little attention. A number of writers (Lingard, 1946 and Thomas, 1956) have examined the struggle in the West during the nineteenth century, for political autonomy and attempts by the region in those early years to achieve economic self-determination are also generally well known (Lipset, 1971). However little has been written about social or cultural development on the prairies during the territorial period. The problem of determining if a prairie regional culture exists may stem from the fact that cultural development in the West happened after, rather than before the region became part of Canada. Except for the Indians, the Metis and the colony at Red River, no substantial pre-Canadian settlement occurred in Rupert's Land before it was given to Canada by Great Britain in 1870. Ontario, Quebec, the Maritime provinces, British Columbia and Newfoundland all had established cultural and political identities before Confederation and all made a choice to form, or to join, Canada. The West did not. The West, and the North, were unique among the regions of Canada in that they did not negotiate their way into Confederation as equal partners. Instead these regions became, in effect, colonies of Canada. Since, in the West, the development of a regional cultural identity occurred within the framework of, and sometimes in conflict with, the concurrent growth of a Canadian national identity, it raises the question; has the West succeeded in achieving any degree of cultural autonomy or has Western regionalism become subordinate to a dominant national culture, the source of which rests primarily in Eastern Canada. A complete answer to such a question lies far beyond the scope of this paper.

Adult education on the prairies can be viewed as a part of the overall social history of the West, since adult education activities contributed to the social and intellectual development of settlers in the region. Equating adult education with intellectual development seemed to be the accepted norm among British and colonial people throughout the empire during the nineteenth century. That century has been characterized by one writer (Kelly, 1957) as the "golden age" of volunteer adult education associations. This aptly describes the situation on the prairies where adult education was not an organized movement during the territorial period, rather, it was the result of the efforts of many individuals and groups who initiated this type of activity in their communities.

Set up before the days of large-scale public financing, prairie organizations could not look to governments to provide them with money. They therefore were dependent primarily on the voluntary activity of those individuals in the community who would lend their time, energy and talent to motivate, organize and maintain these organizations. Although in many cases adult education organizations did not themselves last long, their influence on the social and cultural growth of the region lasted well into the early part of the twentieth century.

The history of the region now called Saskatchewan is one of rapid growth and development. During the thirty-five years of the territorial period, from 1870 to 1905, the area underwent a dramatic transformation. It developed from a small population, primarily dependent on the fur trade, to an established agricultural society of some quarter of a million people. By 1914 the population had increased to about half a million.

This growth occurred as a result of intensive immigration into the region of settlers from Eastern Canada, Manitoba, Great Britain and central Europe. Immigrants from these areas came into the West in two stages. The first of these stages began in 1870 and continued throughout the whole of the territorial period. In this stage the majority of immigrants were of Anglo-Saxon and Celtic stock and were of two cultural groups, Canadian and old-country British. The second stage of immigration into the West occurred after the turn of the century. These people came generally from central Europe and had been encouraged to settle in the region by the immigration policies of the Laurier government which had come to power in 1896.

Anglo-Saxon immigration into the West during the territorial period is usually thought of as being a single continuous phenomenon. It seems, however, that this was not the case. There were, in fact, three distinct phases of settlement during the period of Anglo-Saxon immigration from 1870 to 1905. The first of these three phases of settlement occurred in the Saskatchewan district from 1870 to 1882.

The first European settlements in the Saskatchewan district, after it became part of Canada in 1870, may be considered as the final extension of the Canadian expansionist movement into the West, a movement which had its beginnings in Eastern Canada. These early settlers were primarily "Canadians" from Ontario who had moved into the Red River Settlement in the latter half of the nineteenth century and were the main agitators behind the effort to have the region become a part of Canada. Believing the Saskatchewan district to be the most promising for agriculture in the new North West Territories, many of these people moved there almost as soon as the Territories were annexed by Canada.

Government officials and social leaders in the communities of Prince Albert and Battleford, the new capital of the Territories, were, in some instances, members of the Canada First Party who had come to the region from Manitoba, and had surprisingly good connections with the ruling circles in Ottawa. For instance, Charles Mair had moved to Prince Albert from Portage la Prairie in 1877. Other prominent people in the community of the Saskatchewan district included Hayter Reed, who had come West with the Wolseley Expedition of 1870; Alexander Sproat, who had been a member of the first parliament of Canada; Lawrence Clarke, Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company; David Laird, the first resident Lieutenant-Governor of the Territories; Peter G. Laurie, who established the first newspaper in the Territories, The Saskatchewan Herald, in Battleford and the Right Reverend John McLean, the first Anglican Bishop of Saskatchewan. These people generally became the social elite in the Saskatchewan district where they set about to create a lifestyle similar to the one they had left behind in Manitoba and Ontario.

In this first phase of settlement, from 1870 to 1882, in the Saskatchewan district, adult education activities were community generated and tended to be patterned after similar activities in Eastern Canada. The first of these activities was a "conversazione" held in Prince Albert on December 5, 1878. Later, a penny readings society was established in Prince Albert which was followed by an agricultural society.

Perhaps the most important educational event to occur in the community of Prince Albert, a bustling town in 1879 of some eight hundred inhabitants served by steamboats on the South Saskatchewan River, was the opening in that year of Emmanuel College, a Church of England college which became the first University of Saskatchewan. The present University of Saskatchewan was founded in 1909 as a provincial institution, in Saskatoon.

In 1883, The Prince Albert Young Men's Literary and Athletic Club was formed. It was modelled on the Royal Canadian Institute of Toronto and had a short, if interesting, existence, being disbanded in 1884. Although it did not last long, the Prince Albert club is important to note as an example of the type of adult education activity which was taking place in the Saskatchewan district, since it illustrates the way in which settlers from Manitoba and Eastern Canada brought their social and cultural institutions with them into the North West Territories. It is also important to note because its demise paralleled the demise of the Saskatchewan district as the centre of cultural influence in the West.

In the summer of 1882, the Canadian Pacific Railway laid four hundred miles of track across the southern prairies. This astounding feat of railway construction was to completely change the pattern of settlement in the West. As farmland became available in the south, in the District of Assiniboia, immigration into the Saskatchewan district virtually ceased.

The significance of the construction of the CPR along the southern route to the cultural development of the region seems to have been overlooked by historians of the province. Some social historians, as mentioned earlier, seem to view Canadian expansionism into the West as a single movement, continuing without interruption throughout the territorial period (Owram, 1980). If one considers settlement in the West as having three distinct phases, the first occurring from 1870 to 1882 into the Saskatchewan district in the north, the second from 1882 to 1890 into the District of Assiniboia in the south and the third from 1890 to 1905 in both districts, the impact of the railway on settlement and on the evolution of a cultural identity in the West becomes clearer. If the social and economic development of the Saskatchewan district had continued as it would have, had the CPR been built along its originally proposed northern route from Portage la Prairie through Saskatchewan to Edmonton and on through the Yellow Head Pass, the northern region would have been the centre of cultural development in the West and its influence would have moved southward into Assinboia when that region was eventually opened to settlement.

By rerouting the railway south, immigration into Saskatchewan ceased and flowed instead into Assiniboia. Because of this, the cultural base established by the original Canadian settlers in the Saskatchewan district collapsed. As the railway track steadily moved across the southern prairies, it was just as steadily disrupting the social and cultural evolution of the West. Any influence that the original Canadian expansionists and their established communities in Saskatchewan may have had on shaping the future Western society was completely lost and the northern region faded into an obscurity that not even the second Riel Rebellion could revive.

It was in the southern region that the foundations for the way of life that would exist in the future province of Saskatchewan were laid. The District of Assiniboia quickly became the most important in the Territories, having the largest population and the most influential communities. Its position as the centre of cultural influence on the prairies was confirmed when the capital of the Territories was moved from Battleford to Regina in 1882.

Most immigration into the District of Assiniboia, after the construction of the railway, was from Eastern Canada, Manitoba and Great Britain. The social structure in the District of Assiniboia during the second phase of settlement, from 1882 to 1890, tended to reflect two dominant cultural groups, Eastern Canadian and old-country British living side by side. Of a total population in 1885 of about 17,000, some 16,000 were of British or English-Canadian origin. The largest number of settlers in the region came from Ontario, almost 9,000, and about 2,000 came from Manitoba. Close to 6,000 of the settlers were British immigrants. About 2,000 of them lived in Assiniboia north of the CPR tracks in a rough, triangular area between Moosomin, Regina and Yorkton, in "colonies" established by various groups. Perhaps the best known of these settlements was Cannington Manor established in the Carlyle area of Assiniboia in 1882.

It is a popular myth that these early settlers on the prairies were poor and lived isolated, even unhappy lives, barely scratching a living from the soil. In some cases this was true, but in other cases, British settlers in Assiniboia were well off and, especially in towns, lived a life similar to that which they would have led in Great Britain. Many of the British immigrants were well educated and came from wealthy and influential families. However, because of poor prospects for employment in the professions usually reserved for them in the old country, they looked to the colonies as a place to begin a new life.

Many of the six thousand British settlers in the District of Assiniboia retained an Imperial rather than a Canadian outlook and their adult education institutions tended to be similar to those they had been accustomed to in the old country. Towards the end of the territorial period, life in the British communities on the prairies began to change, and the distinct British character of the original communities along the CPR track from Moosomin to Regina was gradually eroded as settlers began to adapt to a North American lifestyle.

Most of the adult education activities of Eastern Canadian settlers in Assiniboia during the second phase of settlement were similar to those which occurred in Ontario during that time. In 1885, the District of Assiniboia was a vast and often lonely place to live. Social life in the towns and colonies and on individual homesteads out on the prairies depended a great deal on what people were willing to do for themselves. Mutual help was a feature of pioneer life. Neighbours helped raise barns and houses and help was given in sowing and harvesting crops. Projects such as these, done in common, also provided occasions for socializing. In many communities, dances, card parties and picnics were the principal sources of entertainment. The church and the school both played an important part in the lives of the pioneers. Often these institutions were the focal point of community activity. Later, community halls were constructed and they became the centres for social activities.

A number of organizations were established in Assiniboia to provide adult education to settlers. Lectures, debates and mock parliaments were examples of adult education activity which were extremely popular in communities throughout the region. These were also the featured activities of literary societies, mutual improvement societies and penny reading associations established in many of the towns in Assiniboia.

A literary and debating society was formed in Moose Jaw in 1894 and another founded in Boharm, a small town about fifteen miles south of Moose Jaw, a few years later. Teams from the two societies engaged in hotly contested debates for many years. Many of the participants in these contests developed the skills in public speaking that they were later to use to good advantage as territorial politicians.

Mutual improvement societies were also popular in many Western communities during the territorial period. The purpose of these societies was to foster the intellectual and moral improvement of its members through lectures, debates and readings. The Medicine Hat Young Peoples' Mutual Improvement Society was formed in 1892. Other societies were formed in communities throughout Assiniboia during the same period.

An important concern of settlers was the development of library services in the towns and villages of the Territories. Much of the reading activity that occurred in the region before the days of free public libraries, took place in subscription libraries, Sunday School libraries and circulation libraries organized by private individuals or interested groups within the community.

The towns of Broadview and Moose Jaw, both divisional points on the CPR, became sites for libraries established by CPR workers. CPR libraries originated in Winnipeg in 1884. The library at Broadview began in 1887 and lasted until 1890. The CPR library at Moose Jaw also began in 1887. Members paid a subscription fee of one dollar and had access to between eight hundred and one thousand volumes. The library was one of the best in the Territories, having a reading room holding a large selection of current newspapers and magazines. Funds for the library came primarily from the proceeds of an annual excursion and picnic for members and their families, in the nearby

Qu'Appelle Valley.

In the years following 1890, settlement moved northward and southward from the main CPR track in Assiniboia. With the completion in that year of a branch line (The Qu'Appelle, Long Lake and Saskatchewan Railway) from Regina through Saskatoon to Prince Albert, the District of Saskatchewan was again brought into the mainstream of prairie life. Increased settlement in this third phase of settlement, which lasted to 1905, brought a number of significant changes to the way of life on the prairies. The region became more heavily populated and more politically and culturally organized.

The cultural influence of Assiniboia began to spread northward into Saskatchewan linking that district more closely to the southern prairies. A major reason for the cultural primacy of Assiniboia was that agencies of the territorial government were located there in the capital, Regina, and the government was becoming more involved in the daily lives of the settlers. Government sponsored agencies were becoming a major source of adult education activity in communities throughout the Territories. Ordinances passed by the territorial legislature supported or regulated a number of adult education organizations such as farmers' institutes and mechanics' and literary institutes.

In 1890, the Legislative Assembly of the North West Territories passed an ordinance authorizing the establishment of mechanics' and literary institutes throughout the prairie west. Ordinance 17 of 1890 outlined the purpose of these institutes as being:

> . . . to encourage mechanics, manufacturing and arts generally:
>
> (a) by having evening classes organized for the imparting of practical instruction to its pupils;
>
> (b) by establishing a library of books on one or more of the following subjects: Mechanics', Manufacturers, Agriculture, Horticulture, Philosophy, Science, History, Travels, Poetry, Biography and Fiction;
>
> (c) by establishing a Reading Room.

Mechanics' and literary institutes in the North West Territories were part of an adult education movement that had its origins in the United Kingdom in the first half of the nineteenth century. While at the height of their popularity in the United Kingdom, they influenced the development of similar institutions throughout the British Empire and the United States. Between 1890 and 1905, seven institutes were organized in communities throughout the Territories. Two were located outside Assiniboia, one at Prince Albert, founded in 1893, the other established at Edmonton in 1903.

In the District of Assiniboia, five communities, Grenfell, Regina, Wolseley, Whitewood and Hilburn, established institutes which lasted for varying lengths of time. The Grenfell institute was organized in 1892. Grenfell is a small town located east of Regina on the CPR line. The mechanics' institute had a membership of sixty-seven, each paying an annual subscription fee of one dollar. By 1896, membership had declined and the institute was forced to close. The institute at Wolseley, another town located on the CPR track, east of Regina, began operation in 1894. It was more successful. When Saskatchewan became a province in 1905, five of the six mechanics' institutes within its borders had ceased to exist. The one exception was the Wolseley Mechanics' Institute. It evolved into the Wolseley Public Library, the oldest continuously run library in Saskatchewan.

While territorial legislation in the latter years of the nineteenth century was encouraging the establishment of community organizations such as mechanics' institutes, other groups were also becoming interested in providing adult education to people living on isolated homesteads in the North West Territories. One such organization was the Aberdeen Association. Formed in 1890 with the purpose of providing literature to settlers throughout the Territories, this society eventually grew to become, in its day, the largest and most important free circulating library in Canada. The idea for the association was originally proposed by the Countess of Aberdeen, whose husband, the Earl of Aberdeen, was Governor General of Canada from 1893 to 1898.

At the height of its operation the Aberdeen Association had eighteen branches organized across Canada and five in Great Britain. Between 1899 and 1901, these branches had sent out approximately twenty-five thousand books and twenty thousand magazines to about nineteen hundred recipients in the West. By 1905 the association was sending out over two thousand parcels of reading material every month.

The activities of the Aberdeen Association were suspended at the outbreak of World War One. After the war, demand for the service began to subside and in its place the government of Saskatchewan, with the support of women's groups such as the Daughters of the Empire and the Council of Women, set up a library system for rural communities. During its operation on the prairies in the territorial period the Aberdeen Association had provided an important and useful service. It had inspired citizens' groups to request government to establish similar services throughout the region and it acted as a model for future library services, such as travelling libraries, in Saskatchewan.

In the last few years of the territorial period, from the turn of the century to 1905, life on the prairies began to change rapidly. These final years of the third phase of settlement were a time of transition in which the provincial era was taking root. Under the immigration policies of the Liberal government in Ottawa which had come to power in 1896, the population of the West grew at an unprecedented rate. By 1901, the area that is now Saskatchewan had a population of over ninety-one thousand. The ethnic composition also underwent a radical change. In 1885, just over fifty percent of the population was of British and English-Canadian origin, forty-four percent of native Indian origin and five percent of European and other origins. By 1901, almost forty-four percent was of British and Canadian origin, nineteen and a half percent of native Indian origin, thirteen percent of German origin, nineteen percent of Russian and Ukrainian origin and eleven percent of other ethnic backgrounds (Archer, 1980, p. 358).

There were active, often well-meaning, attempts by government and private agencies to assimilate non-British immigrants into the dominant Canadian culture. "Canadianization" programs were advocated in the schools and by public figures of the day. Assimilation was not only a deliberate government policy but was generally seen by the Canadian public as the best method of helping non-British immigrants to adjust to Canadian life.

Several organizations became interested in helping immigrant groups begin a new life on the prairies. A settlement house project was started in Regina by J. S. Woodsworth, based on a similar project in Winnipeg. One of the first activities of the settlement house was the organizing of classes in the English language for those who did not speak it. These classes were taught by public school teachers who had volunteered their time (Woodsworth, 1913). A number of organizations had also been formed to help provide a basic education for non-British immigrants living outside urban centres. One such organization was the Reading Camp Association which later became Frontier College. In the early twentieth century it was conducting classes in the construction camps of railway companies in Saskatchewan.

The return of the District of Saskatchewan to the mainstream of prairie society completed the process of settlement in the districts of Assiniboia and Saskatchewan during the territorial period. The creation of the new province of Saskatchewan in 1905 signalled the development of a new distinctive prairie culture which was to grow to maturity in the provincial era.

To summarize the points raised in this paper, the transformation of prairie society which took place in the thirty-five years of the territorial period, from 1870 to 1905, occurred primarily as a result of immigration into the region. People from Eastern Canada, Great Britain and central Europe took up land in the districts of Saskatchewan and Assiniboia as these regions were opened to settlement. Settlement in that part of the North West Territories which is now the province of Saskatchewan is usually thought of as having been a single continous movement. However, three distinct phases of settlement during the territorial period can be identified.

After the Territories were given to Canada in 1870, the first region to attract settlers was the Saskatchewan district. "Canadian" settlers from the Red River district of Manitoba trekked overland to the newly established communities of Prince Albert and Battleford. This first phase of settlement lasted until 1882 when the completion of the CPR through the southern plains diverted immigration into that region and settlement in the Saskatchewan district virtually ceased.

The second phase of settlement occurred in the District of Assiniboia from 1882 to 1890. Settlers primarily from Eastern Canada and Great Britain established communities or "colonies" across the southern prairies, along the newly laid CPR track. Assiniboia became the most populous and the most important region of the Territories. It gained an even greater importance when the territorial administration was moved to the new capital, Regina, in 1882.

It was from this established social base that, during the third phase of settlement from 1890 to 1905, settlers moved southward into southern Assiniboia and northward into the District of Saskatchewan as rail lines were built in these areas. The completion of the Qu'Appelle, Long Lake and Saskatchewan Railway, which linked Prince Albert to Regina, again brought the northern region into the mainstream of territorial life. During the latter years of the territorial period, from 1900 onwards, new settlers from central Europe began to move into the area, encouraged by the immigration policies of the Laurier government. These people were the vanguard of a new wave of immigration that would continue through the early years of the provincial era, up to the First World War.

Each of the three phases of settlement during the territorial period gave rise to a different level of cultural development in the region and to a new stage in the development of adult education services to prairie settlers. Therefore, three separate stages in the growth of adult education activity in the Territories can be identified. Each of the three stages corresponds to to one of the three phases of settlement.

In the first of these stages adult education activity was community generated. Settlers in the Saskatchewan district organized clubs and institutes, similar to those which existed in Manitoba and Eastern Canada, to satisfy their social, intellectual and cultural interests. The Prince Albert Young Men's Literary and Athletic Club was an example of this type of institution. When the CPR was built across the southern plains and immigration into the Saskatchewan district ceased, any potential influence this northern region may have had on the development of a future prairie culture was lost.

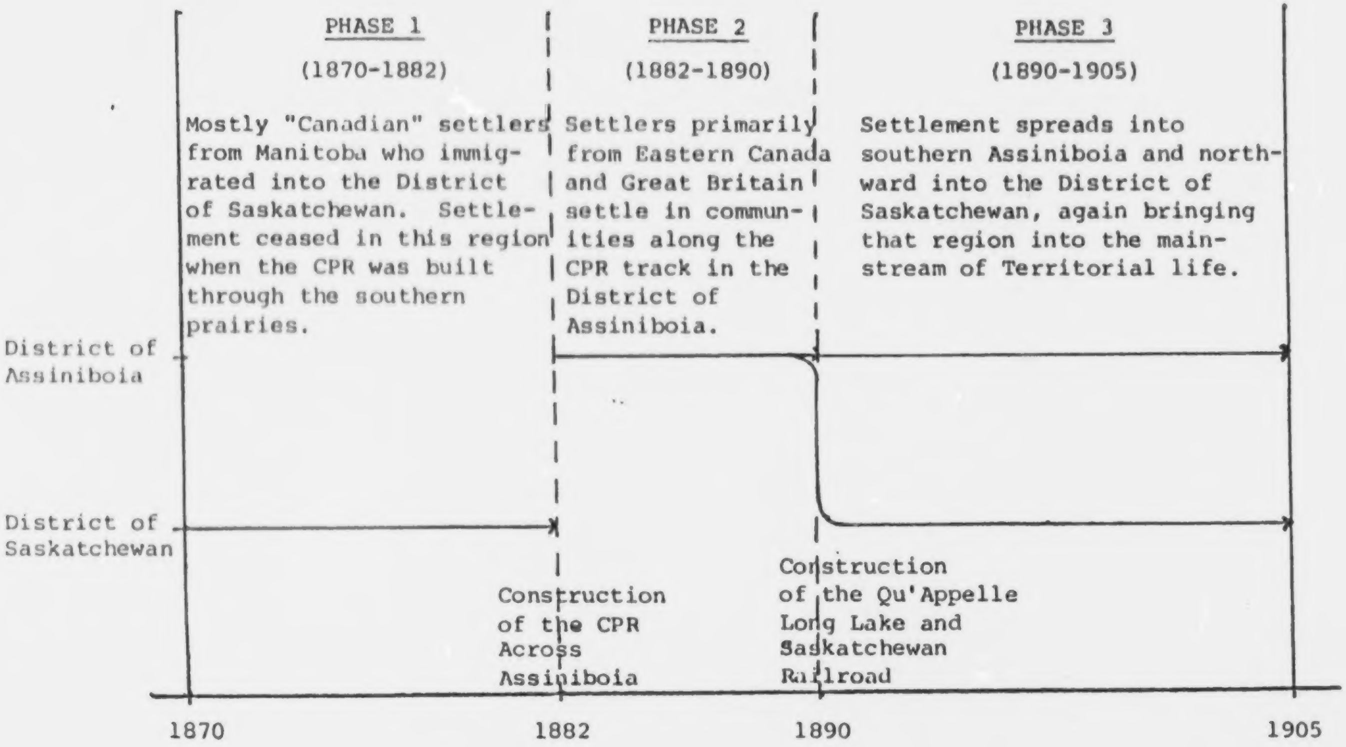
After 1882, the District of Assiniboia became the cultural centre of the Territories. During this second stage of cultural development, people in the new communities generated their own cultural institutions based on those of Eastern Canada and Great Britain. Adult education organizations such as literary institutes, mutual improvement societies and subscription libraries were formed by settlers in the communities of Assiniboia.

The final stage of cultural development during the territorial period occurred from 1890 to 1905. In this stage, the territorial government became more actively involved in regulating various aspects of life in pioneer communities. Adult education organizations such as mechanics' and literary institutes were formed throughout the West in response to territorial government legislation. Also during this stage, private groups such as the Aberdeen Association took an interest in providing adult education services to settlers throughout the region. Some of these groups took a special interest in providing adult education for non-English speaking settlers as part of an effort to help them become more easily integrated into Canadian society.

At the close of the territorial period in 1905, prairie society had matured culturally and politically. The political evolution of the North West Territories into provinces brought a change to many aspects of community life and, because of this, adult education in prairie communities also began to change. The early adult education organizations established in the communities of Assiniboia and Saskatchewan during the territorial period provided a foundation for future adult education activity in the region. The idea that adult education was an important part of community life on the prairies was the legacy passed on by the early pioneers of the North West Territories to future generations living in the province of Saskatchewan.

FIGURE 1

THREE PHASES OF SETTLEMENT IN THE
DISTRICTS OF SASKATCHEWAN AND
ASSINIBOIA, NORTH WEST TERRITORIES,
1870-1905


PHASE 1
(1870-1882)
PHASE 2
(1882-1890)
PHASE 3
(1890-1905)
District of Assiniboia
District of Saskatchewan
1870
1882
1890
1905

Mostly "Canadian" settlers from Manitoba who immigrated into the District of Saskatchewan. Settlement ceased in this region when the CPR was built through the southern prairies.

Settlers primarily from Eastern Canada and Great Britain settle in communities along the CPR track in the District of Assiniboia.

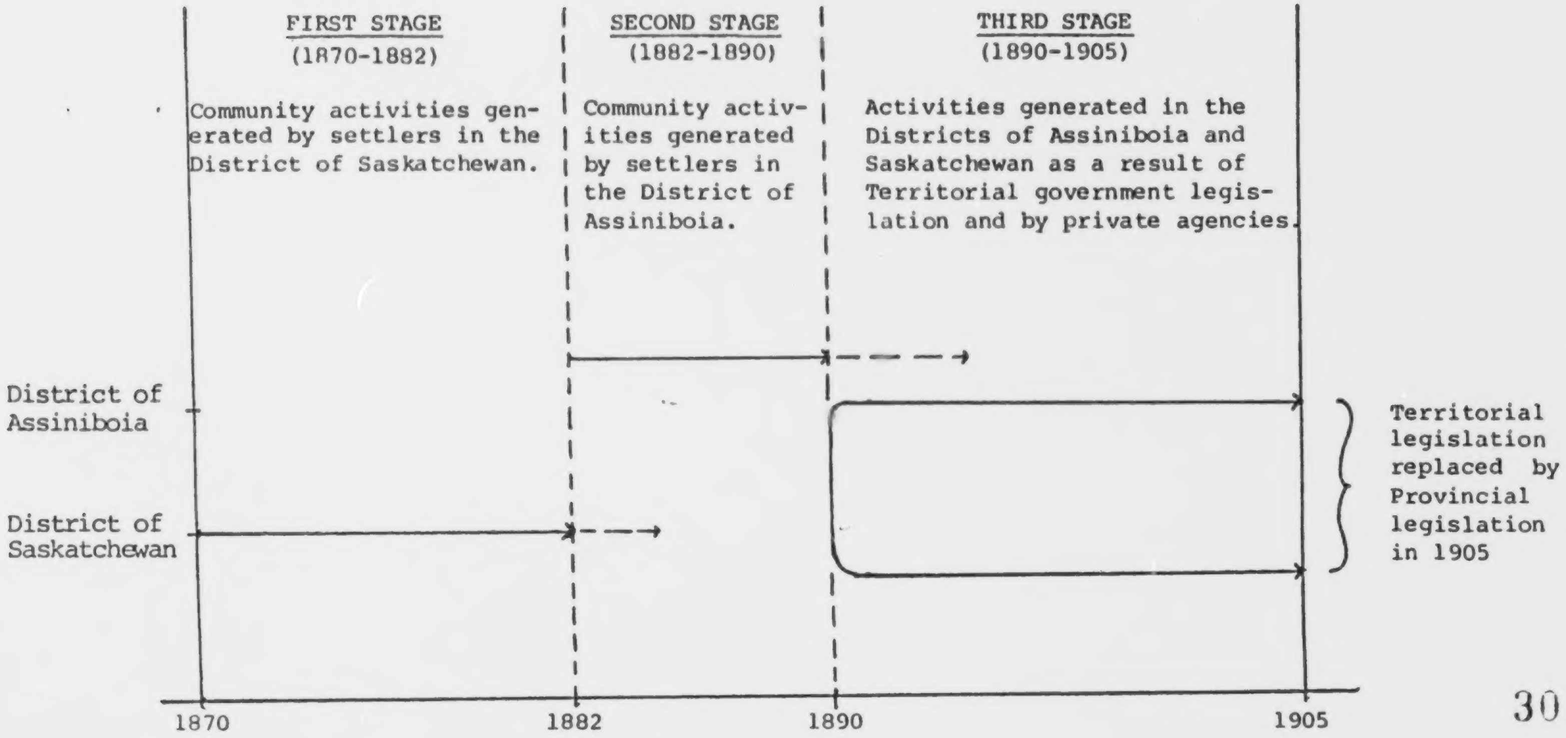
Settlement spreads into southern Assiniboia and northward into the District of Saskatchewan, again bringing that region into the mainstream of Territorial life.

Construction of the CPR Across Assiniboia

Construction of the Qu'Appelle Long Lake and Saskatchewan Railroad

FIGURE 2

THREE STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT
OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE DISTRICTS
OF SASKATCHEWAN AND ASSINIBOIA,
NORTH WEST TERRITORIES,
1870-1905



FIRST STAGE
(1870-1882)

Community activities generated by settlers in the District of Saskatchewan.

SECOND STAGE
(1882-1890)

Community activities generated by settlers in the District of Assiniboia.

THIRD STAGE
(1890-1905)

Activities generated in the Districts of Assiniboia and Saskatchewan as a result of Territorial government legislation and by private agencies.

District of Assiniboia
District of Saskatchewan
Territorial legislation replaced by Provincial legislation in 1905
1870
1882
1890
1905

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A NEW INTENSIVE CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION EXPERIENCE

Peter James Murphy

The author wishes to thank Mary Caye Clarke and Sheila Lambrinos for presenting the paper in a round table session. Both these Ontario trustees contributed to the success of the interprofessional visitation programme described in this report.

Introduction

Our modern society is characterized by continuous change. Advances in technology, new norms of behaviour and contemporary values have substantially altered our world. Canadian public schools have been required to modify the services and programmes they offer to satisfy new demands for education generated by this turbulent environment. Kratzmann, Byrne and Worth (1980) put this phenomenon into a clear perspective when they noted:

> Increasingly pluralistic constituencies demand a variety of services ranging from a return to the "3 R's" to family life education. Within this turbulent and everchanging social spectrum, a thousand and one subcultures exist, each with its own special agenda for the schools. Given these social circumstances and an obvious lack of unifying ideas of beliefs to guide us, it is not surprising that public education is currently beset with serious difficulties or that the school has become somewhat a focal point for the resolution of social questions that communities have been unable to address in other ways (p. 12).

If public schools are to respond effectively to these new demands, educational leaders must "be dynamic, flexible and precise -- able to work with, anticipate and accommodate change and make decisions". (Fast, 1977, p. 38)

A logical examination of the decision-making process, suggest that the quality and quantity of information available to those assigned the responsibility of making decisions in public schools often determines whether the solution selected for resolving a problem is the most appropriate. Relevant information regarding an issue may either reduce the degree of uncertainty surrounding it or indicate that certain solutions contain elements which make them inappropriate. Frequently, however, educational leaders do not possess sufficient information on a problem, the alternative strategies available or the consequences of different solutions. Under these circumstances, many of them tend to 'muddle through' one crisis after another, to employ 'rule of thumb' practices, and to ignore personal bias when solving a wide variety of problems. This type of administrative behaviour is very unsatisfactory for formulating new policies, for planning change or for allocating scarce resources in the present economic climate.

Traditionally, educational leaders, such as trustees, superintendents and principals, have been extremely conservative individuals who have tended to use incremental policies for resolving most of the problems they encounted. Public confidence in education has declined in Canada since the late seventies. This trend is well illustrated by the strong support which the public has given provincial government policies designed to curb educational expenditures. Under these conditions, school administrators and trustees must "act on and not simply react to the issues confronting [them]". (Williams & Powell, 1980, p. 51)

If Canadian public schools are to maintain or improve on their past achievements, there is now ample evidence that educational leaders must be better informed of the systems which they govern, the communities which they serve and the issues which they are expected to resolve. Similarly, if these individuals are to provide the systems they serve with appropriate direction, it is not clearly evident that they must adopt a proactive rather than reactive leadership style. Both of these goals can be partially attained by establishing new professional development experiences which will enable educational leaders to quickly extend their knowledge base of specific issues and to view such issues in broader terms. By possessing this knowledge trustees and school administrators will be able to visualize numerous alternative strategies for resolving problems, which will nurture a proactive, assertive and anticipatory leadership style.

A Collegial Professional Development Model

How can trustees and school administrators widen their knowledge base and acquire a proactive leadership style in a short period of time at minimal cost? Due to personal and professional commitments most of them cannot be absent from their places of employment for any extended period of time. Also, tigher fiscal policies have severely reduced funds for travel, professional development activities and in-service sessions.

A review of professional literature will reveal that existing professional development programmes for senior educational leaders tend to be limited in scope and number. The majority of programmes are designed for individuals who are commencing their careers as administrators or trustees. Furthermore, the programmes available tend to be either too theoretical or too practical. The integration of the theory and practice of administration, which is essential for resolving contemporary educational problems, is not given adequate attention. Consequently, solution strategies are either abstract and difficult to apply or simplistic and only applicable to special situations.

Educational leaders in many jurisdictions, according to professional literature, are facing common problems. At present most of these individuals are endeavouring to deal with these problems in isolation. As Esp (1982) emphasized, at the Gatwick Conference, many of them could be more quickly solved if procedures could be developed for educational leaders to work cooperatively on resolving them. Culbertson (1981) has been encouraging professional associations and educational leaders to establish professional networks for exchanging ideas, for examining contemporary educational issues and for discussing potential solution strategies. These networks in Culbertson's opinion would assist educational leaders to "acquire a world [broader] perspective and effective skills for anticipating and managing the future". (p. 283)

A number of professional associations, such as the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, the European Forum on Educational Administration, the University Council for Educational Administration, and the International Council on Education for Teaching have established temporary networks for their members through intervisitation schemes. One of the most successful intervisitation programmes was planned by the European Forum on Educational Administration. A small working group, consisting of Glatter (England), Hopes (German) and Likert (Netherlands) decided the programme would "have a duration of one week consisting of a day of intensive orientation to the host-country's education system, two and a half days of visits to educational institutions and two full days at a workshop meeting." (Hopes, 1981, p. 8) By limiting the intervisitation period to one week, the delegates had minimal difficulty in obtaining approval to attend. Critics of intervisitation schemes of this type often question whether anything worthwhile can be achieved in such a short period of time. The impact of any professional development programme, especially in the long-run, is difficult to assess. Short-term benefits may be evident. When asked to comment on their experiences, the delegates who participated in the scheme organized by the European Forum on Educational Administration reported the experience to be very professionally rewarding.

A Multicultural Intervisitation Programme

The intervisitation scheme developed by Glatter, Hopes and Likert recently served as the foundation for a Canadian interprovincial visitation programme for trustees and superintendents. School trustees in particular and school administrators to an extent, are not particularly well prepared to deal effectively with the complex educational issues produced by a multicultural society. In view of this situation, the theme selected for the intervisitation programme was multiculturalism and education. Delegates from British Columbia and Ontario, invited to participate in the programme, were informed that they would be offered learning experiences which "would enhance their knowledge of multiculturalism and develop within them a greater sensitivity to the social needs of children from different ethnic backgrounds". (Murphy, 1984, p. 1) While the numbers involved in this pilot project were small, the potential 'ripple effect' was expected to be considerable.

The national planning committee for the programme decided that each group would spend eight days in the province of the other group visiting schools, attending seminars and interfacing with the leaders of specific multi-ethnic groups. The visitation periods were scheduled as follows in compliance with this decision:

(a) April 26, 1984 - May 3, 1984: Ontario delegates visit British Columbia.

(b) May 23, 1984 - May 31, 1984: British Columbia delegates visit Ontario.

To enrich the learning experience, the delegates from Ontario were invited to attend the 1984 Annual General Meeting of the British Columbia School Trustees Association. Similarly, the delegates from British Columbia were invited to attend the 1984 Canadian School Trustees Congress in Quebec City. All the visits, seminars and social events were restricted to Metro-Toronto and Metro-Vancouver to minimize developmental difficulties.

Prior to visiting British Columbia, the delegates from Ontario were provided with three packages of resource material. The first package contained brochures and information on Vancouver, which acquainted them with the socio-economic character and physical geography of the area. The second package contained information about the rich and varied cultural heritage of Vancouver. A newsletter published by the Vancouver Multicultural Society, a brochure on the Vancouver School Boards Race Relations Policy, a pamphlet on the Chinese Multicultural Centre and information on the Committee for Racial Justice were a few of the documents in this package. The third set of material was a selection of professional literature and government documents on multiculturalism and education. After reviewing all this reference material, it was assumed that the delegates would be more aware of the multicultural mosaic of the community which they were visiting. The British Columbia delegates were provided with similar material about Ontario and the Metro-Toronto area.

To describe in detail the variety and richness of the learning experiences which the two groups of delegates were offered during the period they were in Vancouver and Toronto is not possible in this brief report. Similarly, it is difficult to convey the high level of cooperation which characterized the programme, the vitality of the cultural centres, the enthusiasm of the delegates, the commitment of the school boards and the pleasure experienced in meeting people from other cultures. Even the delegates did not fully comprehend the intensity of this new professional education experience until they had returned to their 'home' communities and could then reflect on the events in which they had been active participants.

The learning activities offered the Ontario delegates while visiting Vancouver are presented in Table 1. A brief review of this schedule impacts an awareness of the variety and the richness of the experiences to which the delegates had access. The different events made unique contributions to enhancing the delegates knowledge of multiculturalism and to sensitizing them to the needs of children from various ethnic backgrounds. As one of the delegates reported, "No amount of reading or television could ever begin to convey the experiences candidly relayed by the many people met". (Porter, 1984, p. 7)

The British Columbia delegates who visited Ontario were so overwhelmed by the experience that they had decided to form a special interest group so they can meet on a regular basis to discuss multicultural education. The members of this group reported that the meetings with the Ontario superintendents, trustees and government officials provided them with an adequate knowledge base for assisting their school districts to develop race relations policies. As Esp (1982) noted, we can resolve many problems more quickly through collegial interaction.

The benefits generated by a professional development programme, as noted previously, are often difficult to define and measure. What impact this interprovincial visitation programme will have on multicultural education is unknown. Frequently, intensive learning experiences do have far reaching consequences. Perhaps, Waltho (1984), one of the Ontario delegates, had such insight when she stated:

Table 1

Multicultural Intervisitation Programme: Schedule of Activities

DATE	TIME	ACTIVITY
April 26th, 1984	4:30 p.m.	Delegates arrive in British Columbia
	5:45 p.m.	Light supper at Vancouver College of Theology (University of British Columbia)
	6:45 p.m.	Delegates depart for Annual General Meeting of British Columbia School Trustees Association
	7:30 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Hotel Vancouver - Attend AGM British Columbia School Trustees Association
	11:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
April 27th, 1984	9:00 a.m.	Orientation Session
	10:30 a.m.	Delegates arrive at Akali Singh Sikh Temple Meeting with senior members of the Akali Singh Sikh Society - Brief tour of Temple
	11:00 a.m.	Presentation to delegates by selected members of the Society Discussion and interaction
	12:00 p.m.	Lunch (Hosted by Akali Singh Sikh Society)
	1:45 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Hotel Vancouver - AGM British Columbia School Trustees Association
	2:00 p.m.	Special meeting: Multiculturalism and Education
	3:00 p.m.	Brief meeting with British Columbia delegates
	3:30 p.m.	Delegates attend Trustees Effectiveness Workshops and Science Showcase
	5:00 p.m.	Delegates return to College
		FREE EVENING

Table 1 continued

DATE	TIME	ACTIVITY
April 28th, 1984	9:00 a.m.	Delegates arrive at Vancouver Community College Attend Immigrant Youth Symposium Lunch (Hosted)
	3:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
	6:30 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Queen Elizabeth Theatre and view Handicraft displays from 30 different countries
	7:45 p.m.	Delegates attend Annual Festival of the Canadian Folk Society, Vancouver Branch, Meet performers
	11:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
April 29th, 1984		FREE DAY
April 30th, 1984	9:00 a.m.	Meeting with members of Chinese Community Brief tour of the Centre
	9:30 a.m.	Presentations to delegates by members of Chinese Community Discussion and interaction
	10:30 a.m.	Chinese tea
	11:00 a.m.	Brief tour of China Town
	12:15 p.m.	Dim Sum Lunch
	2:00 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Vancouver Vocational Institute Meet with staff - Brief tour of Institute
	2:45 p.m.	Seminar I: 'Enhancing the Multicultural Climate of the School'
	3:45 p.m.	Coffee
	4:00 p.m.	Seminar II: 'Multicultural Issues in Vocational Education'
	5:00 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
		FREE EVENING

Table 1 continued

DATE	TIME	ACTIVITY
May 1st, 1984	9:00 a.m.	Open forum
	10:30 a.m.	Delegates arrive at the Vancouver School Board Offices - Welcome - Meeting with senior staff
	11:00 a.m.	Seminar III: 'Developing a Race Relations Policy'
	1:00 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Italian Cultural Centre Meeting with senior members of the Italian Community - Brief tour of Centre
	1:30 p.m.	Lunch (Hosted by Italian Cultural Centre)
	2:45 p.m.	Presentation to visitors by members of the Italian Community
	3:45 p.m.	Discussion and coffee
	4:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
	8:00 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Hodson Manor Social evening organized by the Vancouver Multicultural Society
	10:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
May 2nd, 1984	9:30 a.m.	Delegates arrive at schools - Welcome - Tour of schools - Discussion and coffee with staff
	1:30 p.m.	Delegates arrive at Hodson Manon Seminar IV: 'Legal, Social and Cultural Differences Between the Family in Japan, Phillipines and Canada'
	3:30 p.m.	Delegates depart for College
	7:30 p.m.	Intervisitation dinner at the University of British Columbia Thea Koerner House (Graduate Student Centre)
May 3rd, 1984	7:00 a.m.	Delegates depart for Vancouver Airport

> Through cultural exchanges and dialogue perhaps our own education can go beyond training and knowledge and reach a stage of enlightenment which emphasizes the insight and understanding that make a person free from prejudice and ignorance. (p. 7)

Comment

If educational leaders are to provide the public school systems they serve with appropriate direction in a period characterized by declining enrolments, tighter fiscal policies, greater demands for accountability, high levels of unemployment and waning public confidence in education, it is essential that they have access to accurate, recent and detailed data for decisions. Without appropriate data, school administrators and trustees will continue to 'muddle through' from one crisis to another. In the present political, social and economic climate such administrative behaviour is unacceptable.

To have a significant impact on the complex, unique, administrative and managerial problems, produced by our technologically oriented and socially complex society, requires that educational leaders by proactive rather than reactive. These individuals who accept leadership positions in educational systems, more than ever in the past, must be willing and able to provide the systems they serve with direction.

Intervisitation programmes, if well designed and adequately planned, can offer educational leaders learning experiences which quickly extend their knowledge base about a specific issue. Possession of this knowledge enables these leaders to approach, with greater confidence, problems associated with the issue studied. An attribute which is essential for proactive administrative behaviour.

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SYMPOSIUM REPORT

Saint Francis Xavier Department of Adult Education: Challenge and Promise

John Dobson and Marie Gillen

At the outset of the session, the objectives of the symposium were presented as follows:

1. To give a brief outline of the Master of Adult Education program.
2. To present the results of a research project which was conducted by the Adult Education Department in order to determine the relevance of their degree program.
3. To discuss and describe how the department has addressed the two major negative aspects of the program that surfaced in the research report and to invite reactions, comments, and suggestions about these solutions.
4. To present some discussion questions arising from the study and from the faculty/student experience of the program. The intention of these questions was to stimulate some useful discussion about the concept of self-direction, about ways self-direction can be fostered in others, along with the surfacing of new issues on this topic that might give a focus for future research.

The Master of Adult Education Program

The Master of Adult Education program is a self-directed program geared to the needs of people engaged in the academic sector: university and community college; the work sector: public and private; and the voluntary sector: organizations involved in cultural, health, political, religious, and social life. It is described in the catalogue and brochure as a self-directed learning experience wherein students are expected to design, implement and evaluate their own curriculum. Each of the curricular steps constitutes a phase worth twelve university credits. The Masters degree is awarded upon successful completion of all three phases of the program.

The Learning Program

The Department's criteria for an appropriate learning program include:

1. that the statement of learning objectives refer to expected behaviors, to conditions under which the behaviors will be demonstrated and to the standard (level) of performance;
2. that the learning program displays breadth of understanding of an area within the field of adult education;
3. that the learning program displays depth of study of an aspect of the selected area in the field of adult education (e.g., preparation of appropriate reading materials is an aspect of the area of literacy within the field of adult education);
4. that the learning program will indicate opportunity for the learner to measure change in competence over two or more trials;
5. that the learning program will display evidence of the learner's intention to interact in practical circumstances (i.e., that there is a plan to practise the new behavior with an adult population).

Although the program does not have courses in the traditional sense of university study, the three-phase program can be translated into courses and credits. Each phase is equivalent to two courses of six credits each, as follows:

Program Design,AE510. The emphasis in this phase is on the learner. At the end of the phase students submit:

1. A critical review of the literature in the field of adult education with special emphasis on an area of study, e.g. Extension, Community Development, Adult Basic Education, Community College, etc., and also on an aspect of professional development, e.g. methods and techniques of teaching, preparation of learning material, creation of media packages, etc.
2. A report outlining a self-directed learning program, a profile of professional competencies which they plan either to develop or improve, their method for evaluating their learning program, and a general description of the educational project they intend to pursue.

Program Implementation,AE520. The emphasis in this phase is on the educational project. During the course of the second phase, students submit two reports called Trials.

1. Trial #1 reports on the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their first educational project.

2. Trial #2 follows the same format used for Trial 1 and reports on their second project. It also includes a comparison between the two trials in terms of personal learning.

Program Evaluation,AE530. At the conclusion of this phase, students submit a report on personal learning - how and what they learned - and a thesis. The emphasis in the thesis is at the discretion of the student. The thesis can either focus on personal learning, or the educational project.

After the thesis is approved by two members of faculty, it is then submitted to the Graduate Studies Committee of the University for final approval. The student is then recommended to the general faculty for approval to graduate.

Students move from one phase of the program to the next after they present to the faculty satisfactory evidence of the completion of a phase. This evidence usually takes the form of a written paper. Students, however, may choose to present evidence using tapes, films, computer packages, or other creative means.

The Orientation Workshop

Once accepted for admission to the Masters program in adult education, students may choose to begin the program at any one of three times each year: January, July, September. It begins with the three-week Program Orientation period on campus. This is the time when the mutual expectations of the Department and of students are clarified, when students begin to prepare a plan of learning (their curriculum) for "tentative approval" by Department faculty. At the end of three weeks students may choose to return to their home work setting, and carry out the remainder of their program at a distance.

The objectives for this orientation are:

1. to familiarize students with the literature of adult education;
2. to outline the program structure within which students design, implement and evaluate their own learning experience;
3. to facilitate individual and small group learning processes through which students begin to articulate the principles of self-directed learning, an area of study within the field, and an aspect of professional skill development;
4. to integrate students into the Department's distance learning network.

Faculty Resources

Faculty members serve as learning process advisors to students throughout the program. They may also serve as subject area resources in cases where their area of research coincides with the student's area of interest.

The following principles govern faculty-student relations:

1. Students engage in a learning program which will result in the acquisition and/or improvement of knowledge, skills, and attitudes as they relate to adult education.
2. Students accept responsibility for their learning. Such responsibility entails that students utilize the faculty as "reactors" to their learning program, rather than as "initiators" or said program.
3. Students individualize their own program, proceed at their own pace, and establish an evaluation system which is criterion rather than normative referenced.
4. Students learn by doing. Because this is a graduate professional development program, it is competency-based and, therefore, rooted in performance.
5. Students utilize whatever resources they are able to secure. The faculty, other students, resources of the University, and other outside resources are expected to be utilized to attain the stated learning objectives. The departmental resources available to the learner are:
    a) Personalized attention in determining a professional learning program (including needs assessment, career goals, etc.);
    b) Technical guidance in writing learning objectives for that program;
    c) Orientation in identifying learning resources, and in displaying the evidence of the learning development in an orderly, systematic and empirical manner;
    d) Experiences, if not readily available, in which the achievement of learning objectives can be tested;
    e) Assistance in evaluating the learning experience;
    f) Opportunity for individual and group learning experiences.
6. Students participate directly in the decision-making process of the Department as it pertains to overall departmental policy.

Highlights of Research Project

Introduction

Adult education has, in recent times, emerged as a professional field distinct from conventional teaching. Not only is its target population different but also self-directed methodology and non-formal techniques bear little resemblance to formal education.

Objective

Several graduate study programs have been established in Canada to prepare these practitioners. A survery was recently conducted to ascertain the relevancy of the St. F.X. program in adult education.

Methodology

A questionaire was sent to 234 adult educators; responses were received from 114. Sixty-eight are currently studying, 35 are graduates, and 11 are withdrawals.

Results

1. Employment distribution of respondents is:

-Government	26.3%
-N.G.O.	24.6
-Community College	17.7
-Business	10.6
-University	10.6
-Unemployed	10.2

2. Improvement of skill performance on the job is a direct consequence of the program, 85.1%.
3. Adult education skills most frequently practices on the job:

-facilitating group processes	83.3%
-evaluating performance	82.5
-preparing learning curricula	67.5
-assessing learning needs	66.7
-reporting performance results	62.3
-preparing learning objectives	53.5
-analyzing performance tasks	52.6

4. Respondents consider themselves (93%), and are considered by their employers (77.2%) as professional adult educators.
5. During their 3.5 year tenure in the program 40% of the respondents changed jobs and 37.7% were promoted.
6. The self-directed learning concept was the most important reason for choosing St. F.X. The lack of faculty presence and literature resources were the two major negative aspects of the program.

Conclusions:

A wide variety of employment opportunities exist for adult educators. Skill development is the most important part of the program.

Facilitating group processes and evaluating performance are the most frequently used skills that were learned in the program. Upward mobility occurs during tenure in the program. Self-direction is the most important aspect of the program.

Recommendation:

Keep the program going but improve the communications and information networks.

Department Response to Study--the Challenge

John Dobson, chairman of the department, described how the department has addressed the two major negative aspects of the program--communications and information networks--by publishing a department newsletter and by offering to the student access to an informational database.

Communications

Recent copies of Serendipity, the newsletter of the department, was circulated to the participants. Dr. Dobson commented on the development of the newsletter, the frequency of publication, and the usefulness of the publication to students. He further described how information was collected and the difficulties of collecting information from students, who for the most part work at a distance. Some useful comments on information collection and the types of information that might be sought for the publication were suggested by the participants.

Information Networks

Dr. Dobson then introduced the participants to Information Interface International, a computerized database which links several adult education collections in order that they may be easily searched by practitioners. The Interface system is able to search on title words, people's names, journal references, geographic location, organizational names, and most importantly descriptive terms. The 18,000 plus items in the database primarily center on non-formal and self-directed learning.

Dr. Dobson invited the participants to call or write for information on particular topics of interest. He also informed the group that this service was made available to our students and other practitioners in the field through a Public Participation grant from the Canadian International Development Agency.

Summary

The development of the newsletter and the availability of database information are two efforts the department has inaugurated in an effort to address the recommendations made in the research report.

Questions Arising from Faculty/Student Experience--Another Challenge

The following questions were circulated to the participants for discussion:

1. Is self-direction a viable learning option for certain individuals and not for others? -- for certain learning tasks and not for others?
2. Do traditional methods of teaching undermine the learners confidence and impede ability to act as a self-directed learner?
3. Do institutional directives and demands impede the self-directed process?

Discussion

Dr. Marie Gillen introduced a St. F.X. master of adult education student, Susan Rockman of Toronto, and thenproceeded with the discussion. The first question--self-direction being a viable option for some students and not for others--sparked some very lively discussion. In general, participants believed that for a number of reasons some students were more prepared than others for self-direction but agreed that those who were least prepared could learn to become more self-directed if they better understood the concept of self-direction. They could be prepared for this transition from other-directed to self-directed learning by the use of such tools as the Guglielmino Self-Directed Learning Readiness Instrument Scale (SDLRS), involvement in small group discussion about the concept, and participation in individual counselling that was learner-centered.

The participants asked Susan Rockman to speak about her experience in our program. She talked about her search for a program that was non-traditional, her need to be responsible for her own learning, the satisfaction she was experiencing in our program. She also highlighted some of the frustrations of being a self-directed learner such as, not knowing when to call closure to a search on a particular topic, or who to call for advice on an area or aspect of study. Self-direction for her was not easier option but one that was more congruent with her way of being and acting.

In response to the second question, participants agreed that our traditional system of education does nothing to foster self-direction, in fact, it probably encourages dependency. Early childhood education was cited as an exception in the system.

Time did not permit discussion of the third question.

Conclusion--The Promise

One of the participants pointed out that the topic of the session was Challenge and Promise. She had heard about the challenge and was now interested in hearing about the promise.

In the time that remained, Drs. Dobson and Gillen attempted to address this question. They pointed out that for those who finished the program or had high expectancy of completion, the program was relevant. Since the completion rate is currently about 40%, our challenge is to find ways of increasing our success rate by looking at ways of improving an already relevant and credible program. The promise is that more people entering the program would then have a chance of success.

ABSTRACT

Toryism and Adult Education: A Canadian Myth Exposed

Roger Boshier

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The H.M. Tory award used to be given by the Canadian Association for Adult Education to recognize the exemplary work of the former President of the University of Alberta who is generally credited with starting the Khaki University. In this paper it is agrued that Tory failed to recognize fundamental principles of adult education and was hamstrung throughout 1918 because of his reluctance to work within army structures and his inflexible "higher" education approach. In contrast to Tory's inept efforts in London the President and Registrar of the University of Vimy Ridge created a remarkable adult education operation right in the midst of gunfire and death. It is argued that Tory's concern with his own status obscured the contributions of Lt. Col. E.H. Oliver and his energetic assistant Capt. Gilmour of Saskatoon. This paper examines the conceptual underpinnings of the University of Vimy Ridge and the Khaki University, traces the rise and fall of each and describes the final confrontation between Oliver's adult educators and Tory's university dons. It is contended that Tory was overly sensitive to criticism and obscured the work of Lipsett, Oliver, Gilmour and other soliders who lugged sand bags filled with books through the mud, mire and mayhem of Canada's best known battlefield. Their address - "somewhere in France" - was the same as the one used by the education scheme in the German forces at Vimy. The different approaches of Oliver at Vimy and Tory in London are analyzed within a framework provided by mode in lifelong education theory, Moreover, it is argued that their efforts, and the differences between them, have implications for modern adult education practice.

EDUCATION IN CANADIAN FEDERAL PRISONS: AN HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

By Margaret Owens

"Correctional education had its beginnings before we were a nation, when the provincial jail of Upper Canada opened its doors at Kingston, in 1835" (Weir, 1973, p. 39). Today, almost one hundred and fifty years later, correctional education continues in Canadian federal prisons, with program offerings ranging from literacy training to university courses, along with a variety of technical and vocational programs. But how did we reach this point? Is it enough to know that the domain of contemporary correctional education is concerned with both the academic and vocational spheres; to be content to elucidate what is, and perhaps use this as a base for discussing what should be? This writer would argue that in order to better understand the way in which education is currently viewed in federal corrections, it is imperative to understand its antecedents.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the historical development of the concept of education in Canadian federal prisons, not with a view to describing in detail the types of courses or programs that may have existed at any given point in time, but rather to provide a broad overview, to identify themes or patterns of development.

It is imperative, however, to recognize that correctional education does not exist in a vacuum but rather within a particular context or environment. Thus, a study which attempts to examine how correctional education has developed must also consider its 'fit' within the over-all conceptualization of the prison system. Particularly important to consider are the philosophies which underlie the correctional system, since education has generally been seen as tying into the objective of reformation and rehabilitation.

But just as correctional education cannot be abstracted from the environment in which it takes place, neither can the development of education in Canadian prisons be totally wrenched from the history of Canadian education in general. Nor can either the history of education or the history of prisons and imprisonment be divorced from social history. Thus, attempts to trace the roots of the present-day programs of academic education and vocational training must take into account pertinent issues and events in the social development of Canada.

The few papers that have traced the history of correctional education in Canada have tended either to dismiss the entire nineteenth century with one or two lines, or to ignore it altogether. Since most progress in Canadian correctional education seems to have been made after a landmark Royal Commission Report in 1938, it is perhaps not surprising that the earlier time period has been left largely unexplored. It is clear, however, that the concept of education - manifest in a way which would make sense for that historical time - was a part of the penitentiary from the beginning. At the creation stage it was, in fact, central. This paper will reverse the usual pattern and explore the development of correctional education from its beginnings, in 1835, to 1938.

It is not only to complete a missing chapter in educational history that this early period is being explored. In attempting to understand the origins of correctional education, it is necessary to consider the origins of the environment within which it took place. By not beginning the investigation with the creation of the penitentiary and identifying the role of education within the prison at this initial phase, one fails to take into account all the antecedents of the present system. The early period - particularly between the 1830s and 1870s - was one of the most important chapters in Canadian corrections. During this early period, several key individuals and events would shape the course of correctional history; the penitentiary erected at Kingston in 1835 would become the model for all subsequent federal prisons in Canada for the next hundred and twenty-five years. It was here that all policies, practices and philosophies were rooted, providing the baseline data and setting the stage for developments during the next century. This first penitentiary was the product of a particular time and space, and as such the institution that was created - and the role of education within it - would reflect the values and attitudes of the Canadian society that fostered it. Thus, a close examination of the circumstances surrounding the construction of the penitentiary and its first years of operation would provide valuable insights into the role of education in this early period. This paper, then, will consider the concept of education within the context of the correctional institution during the initial institution-building phase, and subsequently will deal with the changing concept of education during the operation of the penitentiary system.

Terms Explained

The terms correctional education, adult education in prison, prison education, inmate education and education of prisoners are used interchangeably and refer to the adult education (as defined below) that is carried out in a prison setting. The term adult education is defined as:

> the process by which men and women (alone, in groups, or in institutional settings) seek to improve themselves or their society by increasing their skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it is any process by which individuals, groups, or institutions try to help men and women improve in these ways (Houle, 1974, p. 32).

The terms federal prison, correctional institution, penal institution and penitentiary are used interchangeably, and refer to federal prisons under the jurisdiction of the Correctional Service of Canada (formerly the Canadian Penitentiary Service) unless otherwise indicated.

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in the citation of references in the text:

J.H.A. - Journal of the House of Assembly
J.L.A. - Journal of the Legislative Assembly
S.P. - Sessional Paper

THE HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS

In approaching the initial phase of penitentiary history without suspending 1984 attitudes and judgements, one is faced with the question "How could it have made sense to create an institution like the penitentiary?" And further "What did education have to do with it?" To understand the role that education would have played at this stage, one is required to penetrate the self-evident nature of the penitentiary system of punishment to remember that it has not always been thus.

To seek the answer to the above questions, it is necessary to examine the Canadian society which accepted the building of a penitentiary as an appropriate solution to particular problems relating to crime and punishment. Identifying the ways in which early Upper Canadians responded to crime before the creation of the penitentiary, as well as examining their attitudes toward crime and punishment would be a first step. Issues and events external to the provinces which may have influenced Canadian leaders in the early 1800s will also be considered.

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Pre-penitentiary Responses to Crime in Upper Canada

The Criminal Code of England had been inherited by the colonies and with it the tradition of severe corporal and capital punishment for offences. By 1800, however, this 'bloody code' was amended; many severe and disfiguring corporal punishments were replaced by fines and whippings. Punishments such as stocks were designed to publicly shame or humiliate the offenders. For criminal offenders, banishment, exile and transportation were used to rid the communities of this element.

Local gaols were used to hold those in the process of judgement; once tried, the offender was sentenced to some other form of punishment, but prison sentences themselves did not constitute the punishment. Gaols were multi-purpose. The provision of social welfare services had not yet been developed and a single mechanism - the common gaol - existed to house the deviant and the dependent. Another legacy of the British Criminal Law was the imprisonment of debtors, so they, together with their families in some cases, shared the gaol space with an assortment of criminals and lunatics. The inadequacies of the system of dealing with offenders became a topic of debate, and by the 1820s and 30s, legislators were forced to respond.

Early Canadian Attitudes toward Crime and Punishment

The reactions of Upper Canadians to crime and punishment reveal an intimate inter-relationship between their attitudes and their over-all value system. A common morality was considered to be the key bond holding a society together. Morality and good citizenship were seen as being synonymous, and the practice of religion was of paramount importance to a law-abiding society. After assessing the various writers of the period, Bellomo (1972) lists the major causes of crime from the perspective of the early 1800s; primary was intemperance, followed by immorality, lack of religious practices, and idleness - vices directly contrary to the dominant values of the period. The two themes of individual responsibility for crime - that is, crime as a moral sin - and the influence of environmental factors - in this era described as ineffectual parental care - were both expounded as well. The transition from the Calvinist doctrine of man as innately depraved, that is, a sinner, to man as a product of his environment was in its infancy.

Although serious crime was not a problem in Canada in the early 1800s, Upper Canadians perceived it to be (Beattie, 1977). The conservative desire for social order and stability helps to explain the great fear of the 'increase of crime' which seemed to accompany the new foreign elements - particularly the Irish - entering Upper Canada in the 1830s. For Canadians of this period, crime and morality were closely intertwined and criminality was evidence that some members of society did not accept or had not been taught to accept the essential principles on which the social order rested (Beattie, 1977). Since crime was thought to be the product of a destitute and ignorant criminal class - people without religious or moral restraints - crime could be prevented and society protected if the behaviour and habits of the lower orders of the population were changed.

Concern about the perceived increase in crime coupled with dissatisfaction with the existing system of criminal justice prompted the provincial legislators to consider alternative approaches. The decision to be made centred on whether to replace the existing system with something completely new or simply to reform the old one. H.C. Thomson, a member of the House of Assembly and ardent proponent of the new American penitentiary system, and John Macaulay, a prominent businessman, were given the task of investigating the possibility of adapting the American system to the province of Upper Canada.

Influences from the United States and Europe

Influences from the European Enlightenment were factors which played a part in deciding on a system of punishment for Upper Canada. The reform ideas of John Howard were considered; the writings of Cesare Beccaria, who argued that the certainty of punishment was more important than the form it took, but that punishment should be seen to 'fit' the crime. The ideas of Jeremy Bentham, who proposed that persons who committed crimes were rational beings who would maximize pleasure and minimize pain, and therefore the punishment inflicted must be carefully measured to the crime. What better way to 'fit' punishment to crime than prison terms of varying lengths?

Perhaps the greatest influence in making a decision about appropriate systems of punishment came from the United States, where a revolution in social practice was already under way. In the Colonial period, Americans - like the Upper Canadians - had dealt with the dependent and deviant at home or within the community; few institutions existed before 1820 and those that did exist were places of last resort. In the Jacksonian period, however, these practices were reversed and institutions became places of first resort. Rothman (1971) asserts that America's 'discovery of the asylum' was a vigorous attempt to promote the stability of the society at a moment when traditional ideas and practices appeared outmoded, constricted, and ineffective - an effort to ensure the cohesion of the community in new and changing circumstances. Enlightenment ideas began to challenge Calvinist doctrine. Since crime could no longer be completely due to man's depraved condition, what were its causes? The study of the roots of deviant behaviour began in earnest and the conclusion seemed self-evident; deviant behaviour was seen as a product of the environment. With this new perspective, a new solution had to be created to deal with the deviants. The solution, according to Rothman (1971), was the "invention of the penitentiary" (p. 79). The penitentiary would serve a dual purpose: not only would it provide an environment which would lead the criminal out of a life of crime, its example of proper principles of social organization would serve as a model for the entire society. Within a few years of their construction, rather than standing as places of last resort, these institutions became the pride of the nation. People came from all over to see this new innovation, including the two Upper Canadians who were appointed to evaluate the feasibility of adapting such a system in Upper Canada. The Auburn model, with congregate work during the day and solitary confinement in the cells the rest of the time - all with a strict rule of silence - was selected and built at Kingston. It would serve as a model for Canadian federal prisons for more than a century.

THE CREATION OF THE PENITENTIARY IN CANADA

Most historians commenting on the purposes of the penitentiary have concluded that the original purpose was punishment - both for retribution and deterrance - and that this gave way eventually to include a purpose of reformation (Bellomo, 1972; Sylvester, 1977; Weir, 1973; Zubrycki, 1980). Since the concept of education was tied to the philosophy of reformation, then the above interpretation of events implies that education, too, appeared at some later date. Attributing to the penitentiary only - or even primarily - the purpose of punishment in these first years, however, does not adequately take into account its unique features. There was nothing inevitable about the penitentiary model of imprisonment, no self-evident reason why it should have been chosen above all other alternatives. Yet here was a radical departure from former practice. The care with which all the component parts of the penitentiary were thought out and combined would, in the wisdom of the day, fulfill one major purpose - the transformation of the individual prisoner.

Splane (1965) suggests that "in drafting the rules for the penitentiary, the inspectors were completely convinced of the soundness of the Auburn principles and were confident that the rules based on them, if rigorously adhered to, would achieve the intended purpose of reforming the convicts" (p. 135). The meaning of reform was quite literally to re-form, that is, to form again; to instill the dominant social values of the period into the minds and psyche of the offenders. For Upper Canadians, the model, civilized society would be comprised of temperate, prosperous, industrious, moral individuals; if the 'lower orders', from whom most criminals were drawn, could not internalize and adhere to these values while living in the larger society, those blatant offenders would then be placed in a protected institutional setting where they would learn them, far from outside influences. The dominant cultural values would be transmitted in one way or another; if the usual non-institutional means of informal education were not sufficient, then an institution would perform the function. Thus, the penitentiary became "the most powerful machinery for imposing a new form on the perverted individual; its mode of action...the constraint of a total education" (Foucault, 1979, p. 236). In Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison, Foucault (1979) argues that

> the prison was not at first a deprivation of liberty to which a technical function of correction was later added; it was from the outset a form of legal detention entrusted with an additional corrective task, or an enterprise for reforming individuals that the deprivation of liberty allowed to function in the legal system (p. 233).

In planning the first Canadian penitentiary, the concept of education was central, inherent in its every component.

To avoid the risk of applying - or seeming to apply - contemporary mores and values to the interpretation of past events, it might be useful to spend a moment considering the concept of education as it might have made sense to Upper Canadians in the 1820s or 30s. In the larger society in early Upper Canada, education was wholistic and informal, learned in the family, church, workplace and community. The classic liberal education was available only for the elite, those who were destined to become the country's leaders. The needs and interests of the large class of farmers, labourers and immigrants were seldom given consideration. In spite of the lack of formal mechanisms for education, however, transmission of the culture did take place, but largely through non-institutional means. Knowledge, skills, attitudes and values were passed on through the informal structures of family and community. This tradition would be reflected in the penitentiary. For the offender, whose education was evidently lacking, "a well-ordered institution could re-educate and re-habilitate him" (Rothman, 1971, p. 82).

What were these unique features of the penitentiary which would substantiate the claim that the dominant purpose was one of 'total education', of re-forming the prisoners into the image of the model citizen? The statement of goal or purpose offers some clues. Flowing from this goal, other elements were carefully planned to effect the transformation of offenders.

Purpose of the Penitentiary

In the first Penitentiary Act entitled An Act to Provide for the Maintenance and Government of the Provincial Penitentiary, of 1834, the purpose of the penitentiary was stated in the preamble:

> Whereas, if many offenders convicted of crimes were ordered to solitary imprisonment, accompanied by well-regulated labor and religious instructions, it might be the means under Providence, not only of deterring others from the commission of crimes, but also of reforming the individuals and inuring them to habits of industry (Statutes of Upper Canada, 4th Wm. (1834), Chap. 37, Sec. 1).

The idea of reform had an immensity of meaning. It had a significant religious connotation, but as well as religious conversion, the convicts were to learn habits of industry. For the penitentiary to achieve its purpose as an institution of reform, the prisoners' stay had to be "sufficiently long to break up habits of idleness, intemperance, and profligacy, and to form habits of industry, order and sobriety; to eradicate base principles, and to instill good ones; and at all events, long enough to learn the prisoner a good trade" (J.H.A., 1832-33, Appendix, Report of the Commissioners on Penitentiaries, p. 30).

How was this 'total education' to be achieved? In planning for the first penitentiary, the entire environmental context was considered and arranged in such a way so as to effect the transformation of prisoners. Every component from the architecture, to the daily routine, to the staff was supposed to achieve a particular result.

The 'Total Education' Machinery

According to Rothman (1971), "a conscious effort to instill discipline through an institutional routine led to a set work pattern, a rationalization of movement, a precise organization of time, a general uniformity" (p. 108).

Such regimentation was evident in the General Rules and Regulations of the Prison (J.H.A. 1836-37, Appendix 10), where minute details were given for every activity beginning with the opening of the prison in the morning to its closing at night. Industrious habits were to be acquired through ten hours of hard labour per day. Religious instruction was also to be a key part of the process, since for "personal reformation to be permanent, (it) must be founded on Christian principles" (Bellomo, 1972, p. 26). Long hours of solitary confinement in the cells would provide time for contemplation and reflection.

Prison architecture and arrangements were of central concern to penal reformers; the layout of cells, the methods of and physical environment for labour, and the manner of eating were the crucial issues. The arrangement of cells was particularly important, since the convict was to spend fourteen hours per day there - solitude required for reflection on his past deeds. Prison architecture was considered the most important of the 'moral' sciences and there was great faith in what could be achieved by arranging the physical environment in a particular way. It was asserted that "there are principles in architecture, by the observance of which great moral changes can be more easily produced among the most abandoned of our race" (Rothman, 1971, p. 83).

The key element in the plan for reforming convicts was the prison staff. The Warden was to "never lose sight of the reformation of the prisoners in his charge" (J.H.A., 1836-37, Appendix 10, Rules and Regulations: Duties of the Warden). The influence of the 'keepers' was even more crucial. As role models to which the offenders could aspire, they were to be "grave, manly, and discreet, in order to inspire the convicts with respect towards them, and set an example of propriety and decorum" (J.H.A., 1836-37, Appendix 10, Rules and Regulations: Appointment and Duties of the Keepers). Ideally, through the example set by the prison staff, convicts were to be taught to govern themselves and to exercise their moral and intellectual faculties in a benevolent, conscientious and hopeful manner so as to "permanently promote the peace, prosperity, welfare and government in Upper Canada (Baehre, 1976, p. 200).

In planning for the first penitentiary at Kingston, great faith was evident in the potential for 'totally educating' offenders. The machinery was in place; those individuals who were perceived to pose a threat to the stability of the Upper Canadian society could now be re-shaped.

THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE

1835 to Confederation - 1867

In spite of the glowing expectations of penitentiary advocates about the anticipated results possible in this institutionalized 'laboratory', the experiment was a failure almost immediately. The plans to create and manage conditions for a 'total education' were not realized. Manipulation of the environment did not produce the hoped-for transformation. Guards did not provide effective models or set an example of appropriate attitudes and values. Abject disappointment in this latter failure marked the advent of a theme which would continue at varying intensities over the next hundred and fifty years: recognition of the crucial role played by prison staff and the need to improve their qualifications and skills. It was soon understood that "the prisons, far from transforming criminals into honest citizens, serve(d) only to manufacture new criminals and to drive existing criminals even deeper into criminality" (Foucault, 1980, p.40). By 1841, only six years after the Kingston penitentiary had opened its doors, nearly 25% of the former prison population had been recommitted at least once (Baehre, 1976).

With the failure of the 'total education' approach, whereby the routine, the isolation, the physical structure and role models were expected to effect a transformation, other means would have to be found to supplement the impact of religious instruction, which, for all the wholistic planning, seemed to be the only remnant left with any potential for inmate reformation. The optimism that the transformation of convicts would follow automatically from the aggregate of institutional influences was succeeded by a determination on the part of the Chaplain to salvage whatever shreds were possible of the early reform ideals.

Although in the Rules and Regulations the Warden had been officially directed never to forget that the reformation of the convicts was primary, the pattern was quickly established whereby the efficient administration and management of the penitentiary became his main concern. Contradictions inherent in the expectations about what the penitentiary could do were reflected in his duties and responsibilities. When 'selling' the members of the House of Assembly on the idea of building a penitentiary in the early 1830s, Thomson and Macaulay asserted that it would not only transform offenders into God-fearing, industrious, law-abiding citizens, but also that it would perform this miracle at no cost to the government. The intention was that the penitentiary could be self-supporting, both by using inmate labour for construction, maintenance and service inside the institution, and by contracting inmate labour to outside contractors to produce revenue. Thus, although the Warden's Report for the first years of the penitentiary's operation at least paid lip service to the primacy of the reform objective, to which the concept of education was attached, this statement of commitment on the part of the chief administrator seldom appeared again throughout the following decades. On the contrary, his chief concerns involved the construction of additional wings, the problems of increasing inmate population, the dollar value of contracting out convict labour, and the administering of punishments. By the 1840s, it was clear that even lip service to activities believed to have some reformative potential was not forthcoming; the Warden's attention was focussed on the pragmatic concerns of performing the custody/ security function as cheaply as possible.

The Chaplain became the champion and guardian of the reform ideal. For the first Protestant Chaplain, the concept of education was interpreted simply as the acquisition of reading skills on the part of the inmates. Education was inextricably tied to religion. The ability to read provided access to the Word of God, for "without an acquaintance with letters, the Bible remains a sealed book, and the convict is debarred from all private means of self-improvement" (J.L.A., 1843, Appendix GG, Report of the Chaplain).

In these first years, the contradictions inherent in the goals and expectations of the Kingston penitentiary set the stage for years to come. The polarization of the objectives of inmate reform, on the one hand, and low-cost, efficient, human storage on the other, was a thread which would run throughout the history of the penitentiary system, translated in the mid-twentieth century as the conflict between custody and treatment objectives. A related theme pitted the apathy and negativity of the majority of penitentiary officials and staff against the committed zeal of individuals who struggled to maintain some vestige of the original reform ideal. The pattern was quickly established whereby activities aimed at inmate reformation, including education in its various conceptualizations over time, were rejected from the mainstream of penitentiary priorities. As a peripheral and marginal function, it was dependent upon committed individuals or groups to fight and manoeuvre for its inclusion and perpetuation.

In the Canadian society in general, interest in educational ideas accelerated during the 1840s, and enthusiasts such as Egerton Ryerson were pressing for the establishment of 'common schools' and universal access to elementary education. Spiraling enthusiasm for what education could accomplish was fanned by influences from Europe and the United States, where it was hailed as the means of spreading intelligence and virtue among the masses. No longer were the informal mechanisms of family and community sufficient for passing on the culture. An increasingly formalized and institutionalized approach to education would be required, since this was considered the new route to individual and collective prosperity, and the mechanism needed to shape the social fabric desired in Canada.

The great expectations for the anticipated results of education overflowed into the Kingston penitentiary, and found an enthusiastic supporter in the person of the second Protestant Chaplain. Under his leadership, the value of secular instruction was acknowledged as something separate from religious instruction. In his Annual Reports, he implied that the professional functions of educators and chaplains were different, and he, in the second half of the decade of the 1840s, pressed for the hiring of a schoolmaster. It would be unrealistic to expect education to be completely separated from religion in the penitentiary, since for mid-nineteenth century Canadians the two were inextricably inter-related and the common schools were expected to reinforce the home and church in maintaining the faith (Stamp, R., 1970a). However, the value of education for its own sake was increasingly recognized. In the penitentiary, educational endeavours expanded from reading to permit access to the Bible to the three Rs.

The educational activities which the Chaplain fought so valiantly to preserve and amplify had a precarious and marginal existence. Although the younger inmates - some as young as eight years old - were occasionally allowed to spend from six to eight a.m. learning to read and write, most instruction for youths and adults alike was limited to a half-hour during the noon period, by encroaching on the time inmates were allowed for eating. Classes were held in the dining room, and tutors were usually other prisoners who were literate. These noon-hour classes existed at the pleasure of the Warden; their frequency fluctuated and seemed to depend upon other institutional factors, mainly related to concerns about maximizing convict labour, and security. Trepidation was frequently expressed about the opportunities for conversation which the classes afforded, the rule of silence being taken very seriously.

Trades training had been a key element in the original plan for the penitentiary, but was never implemented. All convicts were required to spend their day at hard labour and while on-the-job training would have been the normal method of acquiring new skills outside the penitentiary, records indicate that penitentiary job functions were performed on a 'piece work' basis; the objective was not to develop skills, but to most efficiently utilize labour.

In spite of the continual exhortations on the part of the outspoken Chaplain, allegiance to the original objective of reform, the attainment of which was now the challenge of religious instruction and education, became increasingly diminished. His bitter conclusion was that Kingston penitentiary had become "A Professed School of Reform, with the needed Machinery for Reformation - a Penitentiary in Name - a Jail in Fact!!" (J.L.A., 1847, Appendix N, Report of the Chaplain).

It was not the dogged persistence of the Chaplain that provided the catalyst which required the authorities to re-think the penitentiary's priorities, but a series of other events. With the union of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, the Kingston Penitentiary was required to accept prisoners from both provinces. As well, military prisoners were deposited there after court martial. The inevitable result of both factors was the dramatic increase in the number of inmates - from one hundred and fifty prisoners in 1842 to four hundred and seventy-eight in 1846 - which resulted in overcrowding. Along with the rapid growth of the inmate population was an increase in the use of severe punishment; these factors, together with the hostility engendered by untrained and antagonistic staff, led not only to a flood of accusations against the Warden as word of these conditions leaked out to the press, but finally to riots and the setting of fires inside the institution. All of these events culminated in the first inquiry into the functioning of the penitentiary in 1848 and 1849, and was the first step in establishing what would become a pattern in Canadian penological history - whereby a crisis would trigger an inquiry, which in turn would result in recommendations for change.

The First and Second Reports of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire into and Report upon the Conduct, Economy, Discipline and Management of the Provincial Penitentiary (J.L.A., 1849, Appendix BBBBB) reaffirmed the chief aim of the penitentiary as being "the permanent moral reform of the convict". How would this be accomplished? "As of first importance...the means of moral, religious and secular instruction, shall occupy much greater prominence than they do (now) (J.L.A., 1849, Appendix BBBBB, Second Report). The importance of the potential contribution of both schoolmaster and chaplain was stressed, as well as re-emphasizing the need for custodial offiers to embody the virtues of the ideal, morally upright Canadian. In addition to recommending attention to the secular and religious instruction of inmates, the job-training needs were not ignored. The Chaplain inquired whether it was not possible "that the Convicts could be instructed in trades under some system which would tend to enlighten and exalt their minds, rather than deprave them" (cited in Splane, 1965, p. 146).

Besides dismissing the Warden from his position and reproving all and sundry for straying from the original reformative aims of the penitentiary, the Inquiry resulted in little real change. Confusion about the primary goal of the penitentiary was indicated in the Inquiry reports themselves, where, in their recommendations, the investigators proposed two contradictory streams of action. On the one hand they insisted that "no pecuniary interests of the Penitentiary should, in no manner, stand in the way of the reformation of the criminal" while on the other hand they recommended uniformity of convict labour within the institution as well as 'hiring out' convict labour to outside contractors, so as to avoid the expense of purchasing tools or hiring instructors (J.L.A., 1849, Appendix BBBBB, Second Report).

One recommendation that was translated into action was the hiring of a schoolmaster, under the direction of the Chaplain, and provision was made for this appointment in the revised Penitentiary Act of 1851. The addition of a schoolmaster to the penitentiary staff confirmed the growing acknowledgement of the importance of secular education. Even if one suspected that such an appointment might smack of tokenism intended to appease the critics of the penitentiary administration, there was no denying the growing enthusiasm for education in the Canadian society in general, where it was seen as "a vehicle to help man by the use of his reason to overcome ignorance and thereby vice, crime and juvenile delinquency" (Wilson, 1970, p. 218). It is not surprising, then, that within penal institutions its potential was heralded as a tool for the reformation of prisoners. Secular instruction, declared the new schoolmaster, "is universally acknowledged to be of utmost importance in all places, but more especially where the ignorant and depraved of all ages, creeds, and colour are assembled, as an useful means in improving, reclaiming, and preparing them to be better and less dangerous members of society" (J.L.A., 1856, Appendix No. 10, Schoolmaster's Report). The passionate belief in the potential power of education to transform becomes more evident when one considers that education of adults, and especially of those from the 'lower orders' of society, would have been unusual. The great expectations for the betterment of society were tied to providing universal elementary education for children. The provision of classes for illiterate adults to help make up for missed opportunities in youth was not part of the plan; therefore, a prison 'school' to teach adults as well as youths would have been an anomaly.

In spite of the schoolmaster's belief in the beneficial effects of education, it continued to play a minor role in the overall scheme of things. The very survival of the 'school' remained precarious at best; classes continued to be held in the dining hall for one-half an hour at lunch time, but were suspended for up to six months at a time if inmates were suspected of breaking the rule of silence. By 1859, the curriculum had expanded to include reading, writing, simple arithmetic, and some geography (J.L.A., 1856, Appendix R, Report of the Protestant Chaplain), the purpose of which was to give to each inmate knowledge sufficient for the business of life. Reading was encouraged, in order to keep the mind "in a sound and healthy condition" (J.L.A., 1856, Appendix 10, Schoolmaster's Report), but the severe shortage of books limited the numbers of prisoners who had access to this diversion from long, silent hours in their cells.

The attention of the Warden seems to have been drawn to the educational activities of the penitentiary, for it was he who selected "those who are well conducted and consequently worthy of the privilege" (J.L.A., 1856, Appendix 10, Inspector's Report) to attend the half-hour sessions. This apparent interest is less likely to have stemmed from a belief in the value of education than from concern with security and control, however, In the early 1850s, penal reform ideas emanating from Britain included the 'marks' system whereby inmates were given certain limited privileges for good behaviour, and annual reports and other sources confirm the pressure to implement or at least to experiment with such new ideas in Canada.

Despite the glowing rhetoric following the 1848-49 Inquiry, and the subsequent appointment of a schoolmaster, in the decade leading up to Confederation, education remained almost as marginal to the institutional priorities as it had earlier. The penitentiary inspectors, who could have strongly recommended policy to effect change, seemed to limit their commitment to quoting at length from the leading 'thinkers' in education and penology, but the translation of ideas into action never materialized. If financial resources allotted to various functions can be used as an index of perceived importance, then, in the Kingston penitentiary prior to Confederation, the function of education was unimportant indeed. In 1863, of the total disbursements of $132,956.25, only $55.50 had been spent on the school account (S.P. No. 66, 1863, Report of the Warden).

Confederation - 1867 to World War One - 1914

Would Canada's achieving nationhood have an impact on the fate of education in penitentiaries? Would the advent of this new era trigger an optimism that would, in turn, stimulate the resurrection of reform ideals and thereby make more possible a greater emphasis on education?

With Confederation, responsibility for and control of education fell under provincial jurisdiction. However, some historians point out that John A. Macdonald let it go reluctantly and thought it "unwise that education had been withdrawn from the control and supervision of the General Government" (cited in Johnson, 1968, p. 118), but agreed because acceding to the long tradition of local control of education was a political necessity to achieve Confederation. Stamp (1970b) contends that the state had a vested interest in assuming control of education in the 19th century "for the sake of the state and for the sake of the enterprise desirable and useful to those controlling the activities of the state" (p. 444). Although it gave control of education to the provinces, the General Government did, however, take responsibility for the "establishment, maintenance, and management of Penitentiaries" (British North America Act, 1867). Given the apparent interest in the potential value of education on the part of the state - or at least of the Prime Minister - would it finally be linked to striving towards the elusive, reformative goals of the penitentiary, which was a federal responsibility?

The forging of Confederation heralded an even more pessimistic future for education in prisons. The purpose of the penitentiary from the perspective of the new Prime Minister was clear. In a letter to the Warden of Kingston Penitentiary in 1871, John A. Macdonald reminded him that "your natural kindness of disposition may lead you to forget that the primary (purpose) of the penitentiary is punishment and the incidental one reform" (cited in Edmison, 1965, p. 298). Further evidence of this 'hard line' approach is found in an analysis of federal correctional policy for the period 1867 to 1900 undertaken by Richard Zubrycki. He notes that the building of the new federal penitentiaries - all modelled after the Kingston institution - began rapidly after Confederation. By 1881, six penitentiaries existed (S.P. No. 65, 1881, Report of the Inspectors of Penitentiaries), stretching from the Maritimes to B.C. - a building phase not seen again until the second half of the next century. Why, particularly in the sparsely-populated northwest, would the federal government consider the building of penitentiaries an immediate necessity? Clark (1968) suggests that the usual networks of social control - the family, the church, an established community, for example - would not have been sufficiently developed in the Canadian west in the early 1870s to exert the same level of influence as in the older settlements: therefore, the state relied on coercive measures of social control. The rapid expansion of the penitentiary system was an instance of extending the social control mechanisms thought necessary to augment the central task of the Dominion Government - that of nation-building and establishing federal authority (Zubrycki, 1980). Given this analysis, the likelihood of a revival of the optimism for social engineering espoused in the 1820s and 30s was unlikely. In fact, the commitment to the concept of reform - and by extension the concept of education - would not gain momentum again until the next century.

By the 1870s, however, the concept of education was clearly established as a 'normal' part of Canadian life; free elementary education became a reality, and there was a vast expansion in the numbers of people affected by public education (Stamp, 1970a). Few demands were placed on the schools by the economy, which was largely based on agriculture and simple manufacturing, or by the society, which was primarily rural. The educational system reflected this pre-industrial society; a one-room school house, where the three Rs, along with religion and allegiance to the British Empire were taught, was the norm. For the federal prison system, this general acceptance of the value of education was evidenced by a provision routinely being made for a 'school' and a 'schoolmaster' in each new institution. Although on the 'outside' an example was emerging of standardization at least on a local basis, within the penitentiary system there was no uniformity of curriculum,facilities, resources, teacher qualifications, or time allowed for instruction, either from institution to institution, or in individual institutions over time. The shape of these elements depended upon a number of factors, but paramount was the particular orientation of those with decision-making power.

For the last three decades of the nineteenth century, the curriculum continued to include various combinations of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Considering that in a half-hour at noon the schoolmaster was to teach the three Rs to two hundred and forty men, in addition to calling the roll and registering attendance (S.P. No. 40, 1868, Report of the Protestant Chaplain), it is perhaps miraculous that any learning occurred at all. The length of time allowed for secular instruction and study remained minimal throughout the rest of the century. The penitentiary rules and regulations demanding ten hours per day of hard labour, absolute silence, and segregation in cells when not at work precluded the likelihood of organizing classes outside of the congregate lunch hour. 'School' classes continued to be limited to thirty or forty minutes at noon, for the most part. In B.C., the extension of the time allowed for teaching, from thirty to forty-five minutes, was an event significant enough to mention in the 1895 Annual Report (S.P. No. 18, Report of the Schoolmaster).

Describing those individuals responsible for secular education as 'schoolmasters' implies some notion of professionalism - or at least of training. In reality, however, instruction was performed not only by those identified as educators or teachers but also by individuals whose experience was completely unrelated to education. Thus, the 'schoolmasters' were drawn not only from the ranks of outside teachers, but were also guards (in Manitoba penitentiary, 1877), keepers (St. John penitentiary, 1876), or in one case, the storekeeper/accountant (B.C. penitentiary, 1881). Tutors to assist the schoolmasters were selected primarily from the literate inmate population, or in some cases, from the ranks of the guards or keepers.

While with the perspective of the present, the use of untrained personnel to carry out the teaching functions of the penitentiary may seem worthy of criticism, in fact it is not surprising considering the circumstances under which instruction was carried on in the 'common schools' of the larger Canadian society in the nineteenth century. Particularly in the rural elementary schools, it was not uncommon for the schoolteacher to be "a man of scant learning, sufficient to instruct children in the bare rudiments and able by the use of a strong right arm to 'keep school'" (Johnson, 1968, p.160).

If the perceived value of the contribution of the schoolmaster could be implied from his level of remuneration, then, at a salary of $600 per year, he was worth a little more than a guard (who earned $500 per year), but less than the tailor, carpenter or blacksmith 'instructors', who were paid $700, $1,000 and $700 per year respectively (S.P. No. 14, 1876, Warden's Report; Kingston). While given the title of instructor, these latter three staff members were, in fact, simply overseers in the shops and not trade instructors as the title implies. The continued emphasis on efficient production and consequent 'piece work' approach to labour precluded the opportunity for comprehensive on-the-job training, despite the urging of the penitentiary inspectors that "prisoners be taught a complete trade instead of a little piece of one" (S.P. No. 40, 1868, Board of Inspector's Report).

By the end of the century, trades training had still not been attended to, nor had the "fragmentary and wretched system of secular instruction" (S.P. No. 40, 1868, Board of Inspector's Report) in place at the beginning of Confederation been much improved. Throughout the second half of the century prison reformers continued to agitate for the philosophy of reformation to be addressed. Enoch Wines, a leading American reformer much emulated by Canadian penologists, argued that the "proper object of prison discipline is to cure the bad habits of criminals, and make them peaceable and honest members of society; that is, to reform them" (Wines and Dwight, 1867, p. 262). Such an objective could be reached through the reformatory agencies of religion, education, habits of industry, and the acquisition of a trade. For the Canadian penitentiary system, habits of industry took precedence.

Blame for the lack of attention to reform ideas was placed on a number of factors, but the contract system of labour was singled out and denounced as the primary reason for such a failure. Throughout the 1860s, 70s, and 80s, the rhetoric of prison reformers attacked the system of contract labour as being antithetical to concepts of reformation. Among their criticisms was the claim that it "sacrifices the educational improvement of the convicts to the interests or caprice of the employer" (S.P. No. 40, 1868, Report of the Protestant Chaplain) by not giving up any time from labour for secular or religious instruction and by teaching tasks, at best, and not complete trades. However, it was other factors which signalled the demise of the contract labour system. Protests against unfair competition were registered by labour organizations, while, in addition, an economic depression was rapidly eliminating market demand.

Despite attacks on contract labour as conflicting with secular, vocational and religious instruction, its phasing out by the end of the century did not result in greater emphasis being placed on study. With the primary employer of convict labour now being the institution and not outside contractors, presumably the possibility existed to make work hours flexible to accommodate instruction. The priorities of penitentiary authorities were clear, however. The retributive nature of the prisons was no longer masked by the issue of contract labour; gruelling, meaningless, make-work projects such as breaking stone began to replace the old system. Secular and religious instruction remained confined to noon-hours, evenings and Sundays (Zubrycki, 1980), and vocational training continued to be non-existent.

By the turn of the century, the character of penitentiary schools was being shaped by forces outside the purview of the criminal justice system. Waves of immigrants were hitting the Canadian provinces and particularly the west. It tended increasingly to be representatives of this group who became caught in the criminal justice net, and the school attendance reflected this penitentiary population shift. In 1895, the schoolmaster of B.C. penitentiary reported that of thirty-four students, only seven were 'whites'; the largest racial group in the school was Chinese, with fifteen students, while others included native Indians, Negroes, and Japanese (S.P. No. 18, 1895, Annual Report of the Schoolmaster, B.C.). At the penitentiary in Manitoba, where three decades earlier all students had been native Indians, now the sixteen students comprised six different ethnic or racial groups: five 'Galicians', four 'Half-breeds', two Germans, one Russian, two French Canadians, and one Greek (S.P. No. 34, 1909, School Instructors' Reports). The penitentiaries of the older provinces of Ontario, Quebec and New Brunswick had a much lower percentage of non-English-speaking inmates and contained primarily Canadian-born individuals, or immigrants whose mother tongue was English.

The focus of penitentiary education began to reflect the growing challenge of education in general in the western provinces, where the 'common school' was the one agency in the pioneer community to "wear down racial differences against the common background of the English language and Canadian tradition" (Stamp, 1970A, p. 314). The response of the penitentiary schoolmasters was to gear the curriculum to the particular needs of their group of students. Thus, in the western provinces, the main concern was teaching the English language to immigrants. This response to local or regional conditions characterized a continuing trend that had begun as early as the 1870s, when the penitentiary inspectors, frustrated with the lack of uniformity and standardization within the Canadian prison system, lamented that "almost every penal institution...has its own peculiar system to which is adapted a written or unwritten code of rules framed in accordance with special circumstances and requirements" (S.P. No. 14, 1876, Report of the Inspectors of Penitantiaries). The long tradition of regional diversity was a theme that would continue to discourage national uniformity of prison education and training programs in the future.

In the pre-World War One years, the attitude towards the reform objectives to which education was tied seemed to be at a low ebb. The decades since Confederation had been rich in the impassioned rhetoric of penal reformers although impoverished in the application of reform ideas. Now, even the rhetoric was uninspired. "The paramount duty of the prison authorities", intoned the Inspector of Penitentiaries, "is the enforcement of the sentence, but it has been found feasible and desirable to afford at the same time a mental, moral and manual training that does not in any way interfere with the enforcement of the sentence of hard labour..." (S.P. No. 34, 1909, Annual Report of the Inspector of Penitentiaries).

1914 to 1936

A series of disturbances in penitentiaries across Canada led to a Royal Commission Inquiry in 1914. In their recommendations, the Commissioners strongly argued that the state's duty to the prisoner does not end with his punishment, and they advocated the development of programs of education and recreation. But what purposes would be seen as appropriate for education in these first decades of the twentieth century? With rapid industrialization during this period, a more sophisticated Canadian economy was placing greater demands on the educational system; the debate about the appropriate purpose of education pitted proponents of a liberal education against those in the employment training camp. For inmates of the penitentiaries, however, the choice seemed clear. The objective of penitentiaries, asserted the Superintendent in his Annual Report, was "to turn out, as their product, good citizens, reformed and fully qualified to take their place in the world of work" (S.P. No. 35, 1921, Report of the Superintendent of Penitentiaries).

The catalyst for focussing even limited attention on the role of education in prisons was not just the Royal Commission Inquiry, however, but rather the avid enthusiasm for education - particularly for adult education - following World War One. The future of democracy depended on developing an educated citizenry; this fervor penetrated even the walls of the penitentiaries. How would the future good citizenship of prisoners be ensured? Echoing the social engineering zeal of the penitentiary's beginnings, the solution was simple. A staff of highly-trained, law-abiding and God-fearing officers to provide an example was a first step. As well, the inmates should be thoroughly studied "as to their physical, and mental status, and no expense spared to cure them, either of physical ills or mental defects" (Annual Report of the Superintendent of Penitentiaries, 1930, p. 10) - the precursor of the 'medical model'. And finally, inmates would be transformed into good citizens by giving them a fair education, teaching them a trade, and giving them a thorough education in the matter of their responsibility as citizens (Annual Report of the Superintendent of Penitentiaries, 1930).

In the final analysis, the growing interest in adult education outside the penitentiary setting resulted in little improvement inside. By 1921, correspondence courses were allowed for those inmates who could pay for them, but for the most part, the emphasis of academic education remained on literacy training. Trades training continued to be ignored altogether.

Riots, triggered by severe overcrowding and a continuing harsh administration, swept through several penitentiaries in Canada in 1932 and '33. The predictable response of the government was again to appoint a Royal Commission to investigate the situation in 1936. The resulting Royal Commission Report, titled the Archambault Report after its chairman, has been hailed as a turning point for penal practice and correctional education. It is also the point at which most papers tracing the development of Canadian correctional education begin, and at which this paper ends.

Conclusion

The penitentiary system emerged in the 1830s as a response to social conditions and problems inherent in the early Upper Canadian society. Its purpose of transforming offenders into upright, God-fearing citizens was never realized. With the failure of the 'total education' approach, an attempt was made by specific individuals to salvage the shreds of this early ideal. Education came to be defined as the ability to read, in order to provide access to the Bible. As greater emphasis was placed on secular education in the Canadian community, the penitentiary likewise expanded the definition to include a greater role of learning for its own sake. Although it was continually recommended, vocational training was never realized in this period; it was sacrificed to efficient, 'piece work' production.

The plans and hopes for programs of education and trades training were tied to the philosophy of reformation. In the conflict between the penitentiary's contradictory and often polarized goals, the objective of inmate reformation was relegated to a very low priority. By extension, education and vocational training were also viewed as marginal. Pressures internal to the penitentiary, such as riots or unrest, resulted in a greater focus on educational programs. Issues and developments in Canadian education and social history as well had an impact on the development of correctional education during this period.

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Student Perceptions of Three Models of Self-Directed Learning in a Graduate Program of Adult Education

Reg Herman

From the mid-seventies, three models of self-directed learning emerged in the graduate studies program of adult education at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE), each with distinguishable structures and methods. The models are: Individual Learning Projects (ILP), Group Self-Directed Learning (GSDL) and Learning Contracts (LC). Two surveys were conducted to obtain student perceptions of these models on a continuum of teacher-student control of the learning experience. The first group were students who had just completed courses representing these models; the second group were graduates of the program, who were asked to place all their courses on the continuum and to assess where they perceived their own intended teaching methods belonged on the scale. Findings suggest that the students perceive that learning contracts offer them greatest control over their own learning, and most of the graduates would take a more controlling position than any of the three models for their own teaching role. Possible factors influencing these outcomes are discussed in the context of blocks to self-directed learning in institutional programs and the role of theoretical reflection in perspective transformation.

Background

Almost from its inception in 1966 under the chairmanship of Roby Kidd the Department of Adult Education at OISE earned a reputation for emphasis on self-directed learning. In response to a student revolt in 1968, demanding clarification of the Department's objectives, Roby Kidd's answer was typically consistent with the aims of andragogy, a word he introduced to North America in Convergence,[1] the international journal he founded and edited: "Read the literature." Of course, in 1968, much of the literature was his own writing.

However, the dominance of self-directed learning in the Department was due in large measure to the research, writing and teaching of Allen Tough, whose first book was aptly titled, Learning Without a Teacher (1967). Tough's teaching method is represented by the Individual Learning Projects model.

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In 1968, Virginia Griffin joined the Department and her teaching experiences, research and thesis supervision led to the still-definitive analysis, "Self-Directed Adult Learners and Learning" (1982), as a concept and philosophy for adult educators. Griffin's approach is represented by the Group Self-Directed Learning model.

The strength of these two personalities was such that by the mid-seventies a doctoral thesis identified student perceptions that the entire program of this large Department (twelve instructors) was pervaded by a "tyranny of self-directed learning" (Frewin, 1976). The emphasis became even more pronounced when the Department was joined by William Barnard, who applied in all his courses Learning Contracts based on the model of Malcolm Knowles (1975), thus adding a third approach to what appeared to the students as a single tyranny.

It should be recognized that under any of its many labels--self-initiated, self-planned, self-organized, self-teaching, self-educating, autonomous learning, etc.--there are many coherent methods of designing self-directed learning in institutional programs (Boud, 1981; Herman, 1982). On examination, though, very few of them are likely to meet all twelve of the injunctions for self-directed learning programs proposed by Mezirow in his Charter for Andragogy (1981). Griffin suggests a simpler criterion that should hold true for all self-directed models: learner-centeredness. How learner-centeredness is interpreted will vary in practice, but a fairly common statement by facilitators of self-directed learning is that the design requires and assists the students to take responsibility for--control of--their own learning.[2] In Mezirow's Charter for Andragogy, for instance, the first six of the twelve precepts for self-directed learning describe the transfer of control of the learning experience from the adult educator to the learner. The last six charge the adult educator to design the process to facilitate reflection, judgment, positive self-concept, etc., but fail to specify the negative commonalities of institutional self-directed learning that must be taken into account in order to foster theoretical reflection and perspective transformation (consciousness-raising). Before we describe the three models identified in this study, it is essential to consider some of the blocks students commonly experience in self-directed programs and the role of critical reflection in dealing with them.

Blocks to Institutional Self-Directed Learning

The commonest misconception is that there is no structure in a self-directed learning course or program. It is disconcerting that even adult educators make this mistake: Mezirow writes of the strong negative feelings in learners "who are unable to cope with the unexpected lack of structure" (1981). It is one thing for naive participants, conditioned by a lifetime of schooling, to fail to be aware that a different structure is still a structure; it is quite another for educators to compound the error. The point is that it is not even difficult to show students that there is no such thing as a course or workshop, etc., without structure, and that there is no contradiction between structure and self-directed learning. A good example is the McMaster University Medical School, whose eight stated goals include this one: "To become a self-directed learner, recognizing personal educational needs, selecting appropriate learning resources, and evaluating progress". Continuously and rigorously evaluated, this medical school represents one of the most thoroughly planned and coherently structured programs in professional education (Herman, 1973, 1982). However, the facilitator hardly needs such a high-powered example to bring to the conscious observation of the learners the planning and structures--the very arrangement of the room might be a beginning--of the self-directed learning program that has been designed. In this way, the adult educator can turn this common block to self-directed learning to advantage, to begin the process of theoretical reflection about the educational process itself.

A second block derives from the lack of criteria of self-directed learning available to adults before or upon entering a program. When the facilitator makes the decision to design a program for self-direction (or that will include elements of self-direction), he or she does so from a personal value base and with purposes and criteria that are all unknown to the participants. Consequently, the confusion about the structures of andragogical programs is typically compounded by lack of clarity about the values and philosophy inspiring the goals, and central to these goals, the criteria of what is and what is not self-directed in the context of the particular program. Mezirow's Charter of Andragogy sets out his criteria; each of us has the responsibility to inform the learners of our philosophical position and the criteria they can apply to the data of the learning experience for informed judgment and theoretical reflection.

The third block is the most difficult: educator/student distrust of the method because they do not trust the learners. Certainly, lack of information about the structures and criteria contribute to this distrust, and perhaps especially to distrust of the facilitator, but the problem goes much deeper, even to distrust of the self as learner! This socialized, school-conditioned distrust of self-identity as a (competent) learner has been consistently documented in the research of Allen Tough, who concludes: "People are remarkably out of touch with their own learning capabilities and powers" (Herman, 1982, p. 5). A thorny aspect of the problem that adult educators must address is that of self-assessment in institutional programs, but as in the case of structure and criteria, by raising the issue of trust to the level of a conscious, common concern, the facilitator provides a third focal point for theoretical reflection, which occupies the central role in perspective transformation (Mezirow, 1981).

Theoretical Reflection: Naming the Learning

In the all-too-brief blossoming of radical movements in the 1960s, one coincidence stands out for adult education: the Feminist Movement in the United States and Paulo Freire in Brazil coined the term consciousness-raising/conscientização--without either knowing of the work of the other--to describe the process in groups/culture circles that was leading to significant learning and change in the lives of their participants. This is the radical experience for which Mezirow has coined the useful term, "Perspective Transformation".

Freire (1970) tried to define the process by contrasting "banking education" with "problem-posing education" and socio-economic-political change that either changes nothing or merely reverses who oppresses whom with praxis: action plus reflection. Interpreting Freire at this distance in time, at least four elements appear necessary for conscientização (= consciousness-raising = perspective transformation): (a) The statements of the cultural problems and the problem-solving processes must be expressed in the learners' own thought-language; (b) The learners must be subjects, not objects, in the learning process; (c) The data that reveal the contradictions of their cultural reality must be rooted in the everyday experience of the participants; and (d) There must be guidance to reflection on the actions that reveal the theory, so that "the practice in turn acquires a new significance when it is illustrated by a theory" (1973, p. 112).

Generalizing from these concepts for institutionalized group learning, it appears to be essential for perspective transformation that the participants control the process, share a common language of problem solving and engage in theoretical reflection. Directing their own process represents the action; the common language allows the group to reflect on their action as praxis, "to react to the action and to reveal its objectives, its means, and its efficacy" in transforming the world (Freire, 1973, p. 112). Freire and women's consciousness-raising groups have helped us to understand that the language must be rooted in the daily lives of the participants; the greater difficulty lies in the breadth and vagueness of the term "reflection". Research on self-intervention in decision-making groups has led the author to attempt to clarify the reflective process with the description "naming the learning" (Herman, 1983). The argument is that the essence of theoretical reflection--and its power for self-directed learning in groups--lies in the central act of naming the learning, and that it is an inductive, three-step process: (a) the group identify data from their own experienced processes; (b) they generalize from the data, identifying principles, theories and concepts; and (c) the group determine how they are going to apply the newly-formed principles for ongoing change.

It probably matters less how the learners apply the inductive critique than that, in naming the learning, they become conscious that they are conducting theoretical reflection on their own processes, or in Freire's words, a quality of knowledge that "necessitates the curious presence of Subjects confronted with the world...(that) implies invention and re-invention ...(that) claims from each person a critical reflection on the very act of knowing" (1973, p. 101). Significantly, a recent study of reflective learning (Boyd and Fales, 1983), concludes with two perceptions:

> ....the mere naming of the process--the bringing to consciousness of what is done naturally--is a significant aid to the use of reflective learning. Second, once individuals became aware of their spontaneous reflective activity and its importance to them, they expressed interest in whether they could control their own process.

Further new evidence suggests that the quality of reflection we are identifying as theoretical, naming the principle or concept, is a natural outcome of the self-directed learning process. Tremblay and Danis (1984) conducted open-ended interviews with ten adults who were long-term, mature, self-directed learners. Content analysis of the interviews revealed that 41% of the subjects' observations about their learning experiences were reflective in nature: "I became aware --", "I became conscious --", "In a flash, I saw --", and of these perceptions, many indicated awareness of or search for a general principle (though they never used the terms 'principle' or 'concept' or 'theory', but rather the word 'rule'): "One must not --", "It has to be --" or quite specifically, "There must be a rule --".

These findings suggest that in undertaking to assist self-directed students to engage in theoretical reflection, the adult educator would simply be making conscious an inductive process that is a natural function of the mature, self-directed learning experience. Naming the learning, then, should be integral to the skills of self-directed learning in institutional settings; that is, made explicit, and in particular, applied to remove the blocks to self-directed learning. It can be much more.

In his essay to form a critical theory of adult learning and education, Mezirow (1981) proposes a construct of levels of reflectivity which culminates in theoretical reflectivity, argued to be "the process central to perspective transformation." In this domain of sparse research, Mezirow's terminology and concept receive adventitious support from the study by Boyd and Fales referred to above: "We did not initially intend to study the process of 'perspective transformation' (Mezirow, 1978).... However, the reflective learning process appears to be, if not the process, at least a key element in such changes of perspective." And indeed, references in the study to changed perspectives emerge in recurring counterpoint to the theme of reflection. But Mezirow goes further, demanding a perspective transformation of professional adult educators to recognize the logical connections of self-directed learning, theoretical reflection and perspective transformation = consciousness-raising. Somehow, these connections, too, must be made explicit: they appear not to have been made, not to have been perceived or not to have been valued by a majority of the graduates who experienced the three models of self-directed learning in OISE's graduate studies program in adult education.

The Three Models

Group Self-Directed Learning (GSDL).

In addition to learner-centeredness, Ginny Griffin identifies four concepts that are important to her course design: Emergent Design, Interdependence, Valuing Differences and Experiential Learning. The model is designed for group self-directed learning; the facilitator imbeds emergent design in the course sessions (thirteen three-hour meetings). The facilitator moves from an early high profile, controlling agenda, information and social interaction (interdependence), to later stages (fourth or fifth session) when the group takes responsibility and plans (structures) the balance of the course. Note that Griffin's structures are so precise that she knows that the group will take control before the sixth session, but not by the third. When the group is planning its learning, the facilitator's role changes; one of her chief functions is to draw the group's attention to the consequences of each decision.

In her analysis of self-directed learning, Griffin (1982, p. 37) describes the impact of interviews of twelve learners conducted by two thesis students for at least an hour after each of the thirteen class sessions. The interviews were individual, basically asking the learner "What's been happening for you this week in relation to the course?" In Griffin's words: "...the fact that half of the students in the course had this extensive time for verbalized reflection...enriched the course sessions beyond belief." As a consequence, Griffin's design includes specific techniques to help the participants reflect on their learning, and these take the form of learning partners (for reflection, not planning); a group critique at the end of every session; reflective reports; and end-of-course closure exercises.

Individual Learning Projects (ILP).

Allen Tough uses a simple continuum (which we borrowed for the surveys of student perceptions recorded here) to illustrate to his students the rationale for his course design. It is a scale that proceeds from the left, representing total or "over-control" by the professional (in this case a teacher), to total learner control at the extreme right (in this case, the students). Tough, whose courses tend to be very broad and investigative in nature, explains that he can't function at the extreme right end of the continuum, which he characterizes as "Well, gang, now that we're all here, what would you like to do?" For this model, the extreme of total student control involves too much confusion and loss of time. He designs his courses, then, so that he is closer to the mid-point than to total student control.

In this model, the facilitator controls and structures class sessions as an information, support and energy base. From this base, it is the students' creative evolution of (mostly) individual learning projects outside of classes that represents the experiential and emergent elements of the design. There are several points about this model that are not obvious. Tough's research has revealed that self-directed learners are not hermits, that the search for learning is a very social process in which the average adult learner consults up to ten human learning resources in the pursuit of her/his learning projects. Most important, a point that Tough stresses again and again, is that the facilitator must make available to the learners plenty of learning resources, print and otherwise.

Learning Contracts (LC).

As interpreted by Bill Barnard, Malcolm Knowles' learning contract becomes an invitation to joint inquiry. The contract provides the structure for the collaboration (the interdependence) and the emergent research design of two learners: the facilitator and the student. The method is clearly described in Knowles' book, Self-Directed Learning. The fact that it is clear does not make it simple; competent graduate students who are themselves adult educators report that they feel they fully understand the model only with their second experience developing a contract. Part of the difficulty may be that a learning contract compels the student to reflect on her/his learning processes for the first time at what Mezirow calls the level of conceptual reflectivity. And beyond that, under the guidance of a facilitator who understands that there is no neutral education, the learning contract may serve as an instrument for the still higher level of theoretical reflectivity (naming the learning) and the attainment of perspective transformation. Of course, this is not an intended or recognized function of learning contracts, whose purpose essentially is to help the student learn how to take responsibility for and to plan her or his learning projects. Nevertheless, in guiding the learner to identify needs, set goals, choose methods and undertake self-assessment, the contract certainly requires some level of reflection about learning itself, often for the first time.

On a voluntary basis, Bill Barnard developed learning contracts with many of the students in his courses. Considering his extensive experience, note should be taken of Barnard's emphasis that the interdependence of facilitator and student is built on trust. Trust in a learning contract includes, of course, belief in the integrity of the interdependent partners, that each can rely on the other to remain true to the contract. But Barnard points to a more difficult dimension of trust, a level of trust at which each of the partners can deal with problems between them, openly, directly and honestly. Here, the burden and the opportunity are the facilitator's to model the process.

The Student Surveys

The first survey was conducted with students who had just completed the courses that represented two of the models: Individual Learning Projects (ILP) taught by Allen Tough, and Group Self-Directed Learning (GSDL) taught by Ginny Griffin and a disciple, Marge Denis, who taught a section of Griffin's course along the lines of the same design. As a guidepost, the questionnaire was also sent to students who had just completed the Department's introductory course, a rather conservative easement into the program. At the time, Bill Barnard was on study leave, but students were asked if they had used a learning contract and a learning journal in the program and, if so, in which courses.

Using the continuum suggested by Allen Tough, students were asked to place all the courses they had so far taken on a seven-point scale, 1 representing total teacher control, 7 total student control, and 4 being 50-50. The questionnaire did not refer to the models. Out of 90 students, 46 valid responses were received. The means recorded for the four courses were: ILP: 4.2; GSDL: 5.3 (Denis), 5.5 (Griffin); Introductory Course: 4.4.

A surprisingly large number of students--24 out of 46--had used Learning Contracts (LC) in a wide variety of courses. Separating out the students who had written contracts in the four target courses, the LC mean arrived at is 5.7. As this high ranking suggests, in each of the four courses considered, students who wrote some form of learning plan or contract tended to rate the course higher on the scale than those students who did not. It may be that the learning contract gives the student the sense of freeing herself or himself from the facilitator's control of process and/or various pressures by peers. In any event, whatever the felt constraints, in courses already designed to foster self-directed learning, a learning contract appears to be perceived by some students as still further extension of their control over their own destinies. (Figure 1) The learning journals, on the other hand, failed to tease out any revealed differences in perception of control.

Recognizing that selection of the students who had just completed the target courses might have influenced the outcomes, the author conducted a second and third survey which included all students graduating from the program in 1982 and 1983. In these versions, the questionnaire included a list of some of the variables that might apply in assessing control of the learning process:

Who Controls: place (e.g., what kind of room)
time
environment (e.g., how chairs are arranged)
content
method and processes
outside class activities
grading

Respondents were invited to add other variables.[3] However, the major difference is that these surveys included graduates who had written learning contracts in Bill Barnard's courses. In the combined surveys, there were 36 valid responses, and although the numbers were small, the graduates were now recording their perceptions of the three models based on experiences in several courses (two in the case of Ginny Griffin) taught by each instructor.

The ratings produced by the combined surveys of graduating students (in each case, the model is represented solely by the instructor identified with the model: i.e., Tough, Griffin and Barnard): ILP: 4.6; GSDL: 6.0; LC: 6.75.

In the last of the three surveys, one further question was appended at the end of the questionnaire. It was this: "If you were teaching an adult education course, where would you place yourself on the scale? (Please circle one): 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7." Of 14 responses, 11 placed themselves at the mid-point or lower on the continuum, for a mean of 3.8 (range 3 to 5.5). Twelve of the graduates placed at least one instructor higher on the continuum, and at least one instructor lower than the position they selected for themselves, suggesting that at least to some extent they were employing criterion-referenced judgments in their self-placements. In addition, 11 of the 14 had written, in at least one course, some form of learning conract or plan, though not necessarily in the form or to the criteria set out by Knowles. The graduates' perceptions of the three models and their own self-rating are shown on the continuum in Figure 2.

Summary and Discussion

There are two unanticipated outcomes of these surveys of the students and graduates of the Graduate Studies program in Adult Education at OISE: the very high rating the students gave to the Learning Contracts model for the transfer of control over their own learning to the students, and the conservative position the majority of graduates chose for themselves as practising adult educators, i.e., more controlling than any of the three models identified in the program. Under the headings "Learning Contracts" and "Student Self-Ranking", we will try to identify the implications that appear to suggest the need for further investigation.

Learning Contracts

In the first survey, students who had just completed four courses were asked to rank all their courses on the continuum of control. In the three courses in which self-directed learning is an objective of the instructor, students who had written a learning contract tended to rate the course higher for student control of their own learning than students who did not. In the subsequent surveys of graduates, a majority again reported that they had written learning contracts, but appeared to be designating as a contract any effort to develop a learning plan, a suggestion of several instructors. Bill Barnard's approach to contract learning was selected as the LC model because he consistently required his students to use the guidelines and structure set out by Knowles (1975), and worked through the contract with each student, seeking to establish an interdependent relationship built on mutual trust. Those graduates who had conducted Knowles-style learning contracts with Barnard were equally consistent in rating the experience as total student control or very close to it.

Allen Tough and Ginny Griffin have both presented compelling arguments (and the author has concurred with them) that learning contracts prematurely narrow and limit the learning search (Herman, 1982). However, student perceptions equally compel our re-examination of contract learning, which appears to the learners to transfer to them greater responsibility for their own learning than the Individual Learning Projects or Group Self-Directed Learning models. If, as Mezirow contends, "Andragogy, as a professional perspective of adult educators, must be defined as an organized and sustained effort to assist adults to learn in a way that enhances their capability to function as self-directed learners" (1981), then we must at least seek to identify the elements of contract learning that gave the graduates of an adult education program a sense of such a high degree of self-direction.

Perhaps, despite learner control, learning contracts may prematurely narrow and limit the learning search, but is such an error necessarily a consequence of writing a contract? Structure/control and creativity are certainly not mutually exclusive--William Gordon's Synectics strategy is a good example, guiding groups through a very structured sequence of steps to the highest flights of imagination (Gordon & Poze, 1976). The challenge seems to lie in building into the structures protection and enhancement of the investigative and creative possibilities of the learning search while joining the learner in the collaborative act of developing the contract. But the central question remains: if the purpose of andragogy is to assist adults to become self-directed learners, and if the graduates of a graduate studies program in adult education perceive that Knowles' Learning Contract gave them their greatest degree of self-direction, then how can we bring this model to centre stage for the research it warrants as a major instrument of self-directed learning? What are the specific elements in Knowles' learning contracts that lead to the students' perception of total or nearly total responsibility for their own learning? And if, as hypothesized earlier, development of a learning contract encourages critical reflection on the learning process itself (approximating the experience of non-formal self-directed learning), can adult educators capitalize on the power of this model to attain the experience of theoretical reflection and perspective transformation? In other words, can theoretical reflection be made a specific and integral strategy of the learning contract?

Student Self-Ranking

The first point that we must establish is that the self-ranking of the graduates towards the teacher-controlling end of the continuum, while it represents a retreat, does not necessarily express outright rejection of self-directed learning or even of the three models. For example, a graduate who had taken three courses with Allen Tough and ranked all three of them at level 3, also chose level 3 for her/his own teaching control, perhaps implying adoption of the ILP model of self-directed learning in her/his professional work.

Still, the direction of the results must give us pause--those of us, that is, committed to self-directed learning. In a society that is finally experiencing the exponential rate of change that has been predicted since the sixties, in other words, in a society in which self-directed learning is essential for survival, adult educators must be concerned about whether graduates of their programs are in fact retreating from this commitment and, if so, what should be done about it.

The author attempted to identify three blocks to self-directed learning: the misconception that self-directed learning programs have no structure, the confusion about the criteria of what is and what is not self-directed learning, and lack of trust in one's self as learner extended to distrust in learners. Of course, there are other blocks, e.g., actual enjoyment of didactic teaching, especially the sound of one's own voice. But there is an underlying problem: a lack of clear definition of and guidance in the process of praxis, reflecting on the learning as it is being experienced. As in Freire's conscientização, the task of the facilitator is to use the blocks intrinsic to institutional self-directed learning as the content for dialogue and reflection; the contradictions inherent in the blocks thus become the data for naming the learning, the inductive critique which we believe is the essential process of theoretical reflection. In naming the learning for perspective transformation, however, the four elements described earlier must be present: the dialogue must be conducted in the learners' own language ("There must be a rule"); the learners must be subjects not objects in the learning process ("In a flash, I saw"); the data must be rooted in their everyday, experienced culture (the blocks and contradictions of institutional self-directed learning); and reflection on the learners' actions to transform the world must seek to reveal the theory, so that "critical problematization" becomes the source of knowledge (Freire, 1973).

To sum it up, the adult educator must incorporate into her or his self-directed learning model a strategy for critical reflection on the self-directed learning process itself. In this way, the task of clarifying the blocks, the critical problematization of the self-directed learning model, becomes praxis, in which the adult educator collaborates with the students in naming the learning and perspective transformation.

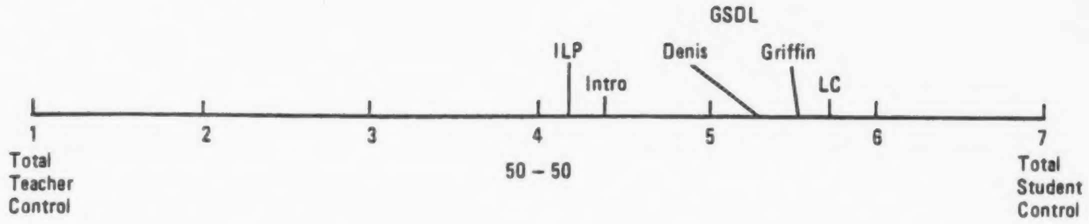

Figure 1 represents the rankings of the three models of self-directed learning by students who had just completed courses representing two of the models: Allen Tough's Individual Learning Projects (ILP), and Ginny Griffin's/Marge Denis' Group Self-Directed Learning (GSDL), and students who had just completed the introductory course (Intro) and a composite of the students in all four courses who wrote learning contracts in the courses (LC).

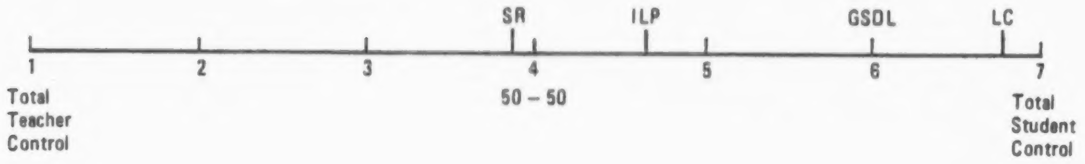

Figure 2 indicates the graduates' rankings of the three models: Individual Learning Projects (ILP) taught by Allen Tough; Group Self-Directed Learning (GSDL) taught by Ginny Griffin; and Knowles-format Learning Contracts by students of Bill Barnard (LC). Graduates' self-ranking is indicated by SR.

Footnotes

[1] The term "andragogy" was coined by researchers in Yugoslavia and reported in *Convergence* in an article by Editorial Associate Dusan Savicevic: "Training Adult Educationists in Yugoslavia", in Vol. 1, No. 1, March, 1968, page 69. As Managing Editor at the time, the author committed the solecism of altering the spelling to androgogy, an error that received a sharp rebuke from Savicevic, and correction in Vol. 1, No. 2, June 1968, page 4, in all four languages of the journal: *Andragogy*, *L'Andragogie*, *La Andragogia*, and *андрогогии*, with the Yugoslavian researchers' embryo definition: "Andragogy is the theory of adult education that now takes its place as a new discipline in the universities".

[2] In her most recent course description (Basic Learning Processes, September, 1983), Ginny Griffin describes learner-centeredness with two introductory statements: "If *teachers* are going to be *learner-centered*, they must be aware of and sensitively tuned in to what learners are experiencing, and constantly matching their behavior to what the learner is working on in each phase of the learning event", and "If *learners* are going to take more responsibility for their own learning, they must be aware of and sensitively tuned to what they, themselves, are experiencing constantly throughout the learning event."

[3] The graduates' additions to the variables of control were about 70:30 divided between the power of the instructor and the pressure of student peers. The variables affected by the instructor included: leading and dominating discussion, tone (accepting, affirming) and role modelling, who can or cannot take the course, roles (negotiated and un-negotiated), sanctions (overt, covert, individual or group applied) and, of course, assignments, texts, etc. Variables of control by peers were: student demands, personalities of students, learning partners, etc.

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LES MODES D'APPRENTISSAGE
ET
LES RAISONS DU CHOIX DE CES MODES.

Madeleine Blais

INTRODUCTION

L'émergence de l'éducation des adultes comme champ de recherche et de pratique date de plus de soixante ans. Au cours de cette période, des efforts ont été faits pour identifier les différents champs d'action des éducateurs d'adultes et pour préciser leurs modes d'intervention. Des typologies ont été proposées pour schématiser ces notions.

Une étude des typologies proposées par divers auteurs: Ely, Knowles, Peterson, Verner, Broschart, Houle, Boyd et Apps, Tough (Blais; 1983), suggère que deux principes orientent le développement des typologies. Un premier principe serait: UNE TYPOLOGIE RESULTE DE LA PERCEPTION QU'A L'AUTEUR D'UNE REALITE (SON AMPLEUR) ET REFLETE SON ANGLE D'ATTAQUE DE CETTE REALITE. Dans le domaine de l'éducation des adultes, au fur et à mesure que s'est développé un corpus de connaissances, les typologies ont aussi évolué. Un second principe serait: LES TYPOLOGIES EN EDUCATION, que ce soit l'éducation des adultes ou celle des jeunes, à l'instar des typologies des sciences humaines et à l'opposé de celles des sciences naturelles, DERIVENT DES CONCEPTIONS QUE L'ON A DE L'HOMME ET DES INSTITUTIONS QU'IL MET EN PLACE. Plus concrètement, les typologies en éducation reflètent les conceptions de l'éducation, du rôle des institutions éducatives dans la société et du rôle des apprenants en situation d'apprentissage. Et comme en éducation, un consensus sur ces conceptions n'est pas encore atteint, il n'est pas étonnant de trouver des typologies qui reflètent des tendances diverses: certains phénomènes sont exclus par des auteurs alors que d'autres leur accordent une place privilégiée.

UNE TYPOLOGIE DES MODES D'APPRENTISSAGE

C'est dans la quête d'une typologie qui reflète vraiment notre perception du champ d'éducation des adultes que nous avons développé une typologie qui retient deux éléments essentiels de la démarche de l'adulte en apprentissage: son intentionalité et son rôle dans la planification de l'apprentissage. Cette typologie a été inspirée par les typologies de Coombs et Ahmed (1974; 1975) et Kleis *et al.* (1974a; 1974b), TABLEAU 1, de même que par la typologie des planificateurs du projet éducatif selon Tough , TABLEAU 2. Les premiers auteurs introduisaient un élément essentiel d'une action dite motivée: l'intentionalité de l'apprenant, et faisaient référence à un concept de formalisation de plus en plus grande du processus d'apprentissage. Quant à la typologie de Tough, elle permettait notamment d'identifier les apprentissages autodidactes.

Ainsi, l'univers des apprentissages chez l'adulte serait constitué d'apprentissages fortuits, d'activités informatives et de projets éducatifs. Les apprentissages fortuits sont des expériences quotidiennes dont la visée éducative n'est pas intentionnelle; l'activité informative est un effort délibéré pour apprendre qui totalise moins de cinq heures au cours d'une période de six mois ou encore, dont l'intention principale est de se procurer une détente, et le projet éducatif correspond à la définition opérationnelle proposée par Tough (TABLEAU 2).

Les projets éducatifs peuvent être vécus sous trois modes: formel, non formel et informel. Trois éléments permettent de distinguer entre ces modes et peuvent être vérifiés auprès des personnes interrogées: l'intention de l'apprenant, l'organisation ou la structuration de l'apprentissage, la reconnaissance de l'apprentissage. L'intention de l'apprenant est vérifiée par une question directe en cours d'entrevue. Pour vérifier l'élément d'organisation de l'apprentissage, c'est-à-dire l'aspect "systématique et organisé" auquel réfèrent Kleis *et al.* et qui distingue entre les modes non formel et informel, six tâches identifiées par Tough (1971, 94-5) et qui semblaient des indicateurs d'organisation de l'apprentissage ont été retenues (TABLEAU 5).

Chacun des modes se subdivise en sous-modes déterminés par le type de planificateur. La typologie compte un total de 17 sous-modes. Les définitions des modes apparaissent au TABLEAU 3 alors que les sous-modes sont identifiés au TABLEAU 4.

OBJECTIF DE LA RECHERCHE

La recherche entreprise comportait cinq volets mais seul, une partie du volet relatif aux modes d'apprentissage utilisés dans les projets éducatifs est traité ici. Ce volet visait notamment, à explorer les modes d'apprentissage utilisés par un groupe de professionnelles c'est-à-dire, à déterminer l'ampleur de chacun des modes et sous-modes utilisés et à identifier les raisons du choix de ces modes et sous-modes.

METHODOLOGIE

Compte tenu du caractère exploratoire de la recherche, il a été décidé de recueillir les données par entrevues semi-structurées en utilisant une version modifiée du schéma d'entrevue de Tough. Les personnes interviewées ont eu à identifier tous les apprentissages, d'ordre personnel ou professionnel, réalisés au cours d'une année. Les éléments opératoires de la définition d'un projet éducatif ont permis de retracer ce type d'activités. Les 40 professionnelles interrogées ont identifié 459 projets éducatifs. Comme le temps ne permettait pas l'exploration de tous ces projets, il a été décidé que chaque répondante ne serait interrogée que sur un projet par sous-mode utilisé, le choix du projet étant fait selon un procédé déterminé dans le protocole d'entrevue. C'est ainsi que 180 projets éducatifs furent explorés quant aux raisons qui ont présidé au choix du mode d'apprentissage. Ils ont généré 430 énoncés de raison. Par un procédé, en trois étapes, de réduction des énoncés avec implication d'un jury de 5 personnes, il a été possible d'établir une typologie des raisons évoquées par les professionnelles pour le choix des modes d'apprentissage.

RESULTATS

L'ampleur du mode formel

Le mode formel c'est-à-dire les activités offertes par une institution d'enseignement, peut exister sous 4 sous-modes distincts. La première partie du TABLEAU 6 présente le nombre et le pourcentage de projets personnels et professionnels réalisés par le mode formel, de même que le nombre et le pourcentage de répondantes qui l'ont utilisé.

On constate qu'un peu plus de 7% (N = 33) de l'ensemble des projets éducatifs appartiennent au mode formel qui a été utilisé par 40% (N= 16) des répondantes. Trois projets ont été planifiés en majorité par un objet, deux d'ordre personnel et un d'ordre professionnel; ces projets ont été réalisés avec la Téléuniversité. Un projet seulement, d'ordre professionnel, a été structuré par une autre personne dans une situation de tutorat. Tous les autres ont été structurés par un groupe ou son instructeur, ce qui représente 87,9% des projets de type formel.

Comme le nombre de projets dans ce mode est plutôt restreint et qu'à l'exception de quelques projets, tous ont été réalisés dans une même institution, il est difficile de tirer des conclusions. Cependant nous pouvons tout au moins constater que dans aucun cas, l'apprenante n'a été appelée à planifier ses apprentissages et qu'une seule a bénéficié d'une expérience sous forme de tutorat individuel.

L'ampleur du mode non formel

Le mode non formel inclut les activités où l'apprentissage est organisé de façon systématique avant et/ou au cours des activités, et où l'intention première de l'apprenante est d'apprendre. En outre, si les activités sont offertes par une institution d'enseignement, elles ne sont accompagnées d'aucune attestation ou crédit.

Le mode non formel compte 7 sous-modes (TABLEAU 4).

Dans la deuxième partie du TABLEAU 6 apparaissent le nombre et le pourcentage des projets personnels et professionnels réalisés par le mode non formel de même que le nombre et le pourcentage des répondantes qui l'ont utilisé.

Il y a 77% (N = 352) de l'ensemble des projets éducatifs catégorisés dans le mode non formel. Ce mode a été utilisé par toutes les répondantes, ce qui en fait le mode le plus répandu et le plus fréquent chez les personnes que nous avons interviewées.

Près de 79% de tous les projets personnels et 75% des projets d'ordre professionnel ont été réalisés par le mode non formel.

Tous les sous-modes ont été utilisés mais près de 68% (N = 239) des projets de ce mode ou 52% de tous les projets éducatifs ont été planifiés par l'apprenante elle-même. La proportion des projets planifiés par l'apprenante est sensiblement plus élevée lorsqu'il s'agit des projets d'ordre personnel; le nombre de répondantes qui ont utilisé ce sous-mode est aussi plus élevé.

Les projets structurés par un organisme occupent le 2e rang des sous-modes non formels avec 14 des projets de ce mode; 68% des répondantes ont utilisé ce sous-mode. Il est moins fréquent pour les projets d'ordre personnel où il se classe au 3e rang, et l'est davantage pour les projets d'ordre professionnel où la moitié des répondantes l'ont utilisé dans 19% de leurs projets.

Le 3e sous-mode en importance est le groupe ou un instructeur qui n'est pas engagé par une institution d'enseignement ou un organisme. Quarante-cinq pourcent des répondantes l'ont utilisé pour 9% des projets de ce mode. Ce sous-mode est proportionnellement un peu plus fréquent pour les projets d'ordre professionnel où un plus grand nombre de répondantes l'ont utilisé.

Le sous-mode le moins utilisé est celui où l'apprentissage est structuré par un objet; 2 répondantes (5%) seulement l'ont utilisé pour 3 projets (0,7%).

L'ampleur du mode informel

Le mode informel inclut les activités où l'intention d'apprendre de l'apprenante est seconde ou encore son intention est première mais l'apprentissage n'est pas organisé de façon systématique.

Le mode informel est constitué de six sous-modes (TABLEAU 4).

La troisième partie du TABLEAU 6 indique le nombre et le pourcentage des projets personnels et professionnels réalisés par le mode informel de même que le nombre et le pourcentage des répondantes qui l'ont utilisé.

Des 74 projets catégorisés dans le mode informel, 3 seulement l'ont été parce que la systématisation de l'apprentissage avait été insuffisante. Ces 3 projets sont d'ordre personnel. Ainsi, 71 projets éducatifs informels ont surgi au cours d'activités qui avaient une autre intention première que d'apprendre.

Seize pourcent (N = 74) de tous les projets éducatifs ont été réalisés par le mode informel par 80% (N = 32) des répondantes. C'est donc, après le mode non formel, le mode le plus courant chez les personnes interrogées.

Dans ce mode, les projets d'ordre personnel sont un peu plus nombreux que ceux d'ordre professionnel.

Un sous-mode n'a pas été utilisé par les répondantes, nous demeurons cependant convaincue qu'il existe. Il s'agit du sous-mode objet.

Près de 12% (N = 59) de tous les projets ou 79,7% des projets du mode informel ont été provoqués par l'apprenante elle-même; c'est du mode informel, le sous-mode le plus fréquent.

Le sous-mode mixte vient en 2e lieu avec 6,8% des projets de ce mode.

Le sous-mode dominant

L'analyse des données s'est poursuivie pour déterminer s'il y avait un sous-mode dominant chez les personnes interrogées. Le sous-mode dominant a été défini comme suit: celui qui, chez chaque répondante, obtient la proportion la plus élevée de tous les projets de la répondante et la proportion la plus élevée de l'ensemble du temps que la répondante a consacré à ses projets. Les résultats suivants ont été obtenus:

- chez 28 répondantes (70%), le sous-mode apprenante/non formel est dominant;
- chez une répondante (2,5%), le sous-mode apprenante/informel est dominant;
- chez 11 répondantes (27,5%), il n'y a pas de sous-mode dominant.

La définition du sous-mode dominant a été ensuite scindée pour ne retenir, dans un premier temps, que la proportion la plus élevée de projets chez chaque répondante. Alors, le résultat obtenu a été le suivant:

- chez 30 répondantes, le sous-mode apprenante/non formel est dominant;
- chez 2 répondantes, le sous-mode apprenante/informel est dominant;

- chez 2 répondantes, les sous-modes groupe/formel et apprenante/non formel, et groupe/formel et apprenante/informel sont dominants.

Par ailleurs, lorsque la proportion la plus élevée du temps consacré à apprendre, a été retenue, les résultats suivants ont été obtenus:

- chez 28 répondantes, le sous-mode apprenante/non formel est dominant;
- chez 4 répondantes, le sous-mode groupe/formel est dominant;
- chez 4 répondantes, le sous-mode apprenante/informel est dominant;
- chez chacune de 4 répondantes, un des sous-modes suivants est dominant: autre personne/formel, organisme/non formel, groupe/nonformel, et autre personne/informel.

Ainsi quelle que soit l'approche utilisée, le sous-mode apprenante/non formel est dominant chez au moins 70% des répondantes.

La diversité des modes et sous-modes utilisés

Bien qu'il y ait eu chez les répondantes une nette tendance à utiliser davantage le sous-mode apprenante/nonformel, la diversité des modes et sous-modes utilisés n'en est pas moins importante, comme l'indique le TABLEAU 7.

Quatorze répondantes ont utilisé les trois modes d'apprentissage et 21 en ont utilisé deux.

Cinq répondantes seulement n'ont utilisé qu'un mode et dans tous les cas il s'agit du mode non formel. Nous avons voulu savoir si ces 5 personnes avaient une ou des caractéristiques communes. L'examen des données démographiques ont démontré que rien de particulier ne caractérisait ces personnes.

Pour ce qui est des sous-modes utilisés la deuxième partie du TABLEAU 7 indique que deux répondantes seulement n'ont utilisé qu'un sous-mode. Dix-huit des répondantes ont eu recours à 5 sous-modes et plus ce qui représente une diversité assez importante pour 45% des personnes interrogées.

La majorité des personnes a utilisé quatre ou cinq sous-modes d'apprentissage.

Les raisons évoquées pour le choix d'un mode d'apprentissage

De nombreuses études ont eu, comme objectif, d'identifier la motivation à participer à l'éducation des adultes. Par ailleurs, peu d'auteurs ont distingué entre les raisons pour apprendre et les raisons du choix d'un mode d'apprentissage. Seuls McCatty, Coolican et Penland auraient fait cette distinction. Comme les raisons pour apprendre et les raisons de choisir une manière d'apprendre sont deux aspects d'une même réalité à ne pas confondre, elles ont été clairement distinguées dans le protocole d'entrevue. Pour chacun des 18 projets, les répondantes ont eu à donner "les raisons qui les ont amenées à s'intéresser au sujet"; un maximum de 5 réponses a été accepté. Puis les répondantes ont eu à identifier "les raisons qui les ont amenées à choisir le mode d'apprentissage" et, là aussi, un maximum de 5 raisons a été accepté.

Seule la 2e question a été analysée dans le cadre de cette recherche. Toutefois, toutes les données relatives aux deux questions ont été conservées pour une étude ultérieure sur la motivation à participer à des activités éducatives.

Les 186 projets ont généré 436 énoncés de raisons que l'analyse de contenu a permis de regrouper en sept catégories présentées avec leur définition au TABLEAU 8.

Une analyse globale des raisons évoquées démontre que la catégorie des *caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles* est celle qui a recueilli le plus d'énoncés: 50,2%. Des 10 caractéristiques identifiées dans cette catégorie, 5 constituent les raisons les plus souvent évoquées pour le choix d'un sous-mode d'apprentissage. Ces raisons sont par ordre:

1) c'était le moyen approprié, requis pour le type d'apprentissage (12,2%);
2) le moyen se présentait, était disponible (9,6%);
3) c'était le seul moyen qui se présentait (6,4%);
4) c'était le moyen habituel (5,7%);
5) c'était un moyen accessible (5,2%).

La disponibilité et l'accessibilité sont deux caractéristiques importantes; associées, elle représentent 14,8% des énoncés de cette catégorie. Quatre-vingt-trois pourcent (N = 33) des répondantes ont évoqué ces deux raisons.

La raison "c'était le moyen habituel d'apprendre" fait possiblement référence au syle d'apprentissage. Cette raison n'a été évoquée que 25 fois ce qui représente 5,7% des énoncés ou 13,4% des projets.

Ces résultats généraux ont été comparés à ceux obtenus par Moorcroft et McCatty. Quelques-unes seulement des cinq raisons les plus souvent évoquées par les répondantes apparaissaient chez l'un ou l'autre de ces auteurs: "le moyen était disponible" (McCatty), "c'était le seul moyen" (Moorcroft), et "c'était un moyen accessible" (McCatty).

Les raisons associées au mode formel et à ses sous-modes

Il y avait 45 énoncés de raisons pour les 16 projets du mode formel. La première partie du TABLEAU 9 présente les proportions obtenues dans chacune des catégories de raison.

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Le 1/3 des raisons qui ont amené les répondantes à choisir le mode formel fait référence à des caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles; c'est de loin la catégorie de raisons la plus fréquente.

L'examen des raisons dominantes par sous-mode, première partie du TABLEAU 10, indique notamment, que le sous-mode groupe, seul sous-mode qui compte suffisamment de projets pour avoir une quelconque signification, a été choisi le plus souvent pour des raisons conjoncturelles ou contextuelles; "le moyen se présentait, était disponible" a été l'énoncé cité le plus souvent.

Les raisons associées au mode non formel et à ses sous-modes

Les 131 projets du mode non formel ont généré 307 énoncés. La deuxième partie du TABLEAU 9 présente les proportions obtenues dans chacune des catégories de raison.

La moitié des raisons évoquées pour le choix de ce mode d'apprentissage sont d'ordre conjoncturel ou contextuel. L'autre catégorie de raisons la plus fréquente concerne les ressources humaines/matérielles, mais elle ne compte que pour 12,4% des raisons de ce mode.

Quant aux raisons dominantes par sous-modes, la deuxième partie du TABLEAU 10 indique que pour chacun des sous-modes (le sous-mode objet excepté qui ne compte que 8 énoncés), les raisons les plus souvent évoquées font référence à des caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles. Au sous-mode une institution c'est la raison "le moyen se présentait, était disponible" qui domine avec 26,7% des énoncés. Les raisons reliées aux ressources humaines/matérielles et au désir de socialiser ne sont jamais mentionnées. Pour ce qui est du sous-mode un organisme, 19% des énoncés indiquent que "le moyen se présentait, était disponible"; la 2e raison la plus fréquente est "le désir de socialiser" avec 9,5% des énoncés. Toutes les catégories de raisons sont évoquées pour ce sous-mode.

Le sous-mode apprenante a été le plus souvent choisi parce que les répondantes ont considéré que "c'était le moyen approprié, requis pour le type d'apprentissage qu'elles désiraient faire". Cette raison constitue 12% des énoncés pour ce sous-mode. La 2e raison indique que les ressources humaines/matérielles étaient disponibles (8,9% des énoncés). Toutes les catégories de raisons sont évoquées mais "l'influence extérieure" est celle qui apparaît le moins souvent.

Les répondantes ont choisi le sous-mode groupe le plus souvent (26,5% des énoncés) parce que "c'était le moyen approprié, requis pour le type d'apprentissage" qu'elles voulaient faire. Le facteur temps n'est jamais évoqué et le "désir de socialiser" n'a été mentionné qu'une seule fois.

Les répondantes ont choisi le sous-mode autre personne le plus souvent parce que "c'était le seul moyen" (23,1% des énoncés). Les raisons reliées à une influence extérieure, au facteur temps et au désir de socialiser ne sont jamais mentionnées.

Enfin, le sous-mode mixte a, lui aussi, été choisi le plus souvent (43,8% des énoncés) parce que c'était le moyen approprié, requis pour le type d'apprentissage que les répondantes désiraient faire. Seules les raisons concernant les caractéristiques conjoncturelles, le facteur temps et raisons diverses sont mentionnées.

Les raisons associées au mode informel et à ses sous-modes

Il y avait dans le mode informel 39 projets qui ont généré 82 énoncés de raison. Les proportions obtenues dans chacune des catégories de raison apparaissent dans la troisième partie du TABLEAU 9.

Un peu plus des 3/5 des raisons évoquées pour le choix du mode informel sont d'ordre conjoncturel ou contextuel. L'autre catégorie des raisons la plus fréquente est constituée des raisons diverses mais elle ne compte que 11% des énoncés de ce mode.

Pour ce qui est des raisons dominantes par sous-mode, la troisième partie du TABLEAU 10 indique que pour chacun des sous-modes utilisés, à l'exception d'un, les raisons les plus souvent évoquées sont d'ordre conjoncturel ou contextuel. Les raisons les plus souvent évoquées pour le sous-mode un organisme réfèrent à une influence extérieure c'est-à-dire que l'organisme qui a provoqué l'apprentissage en imposait le mode. Comme la plupart des sous-modes n'ont généré que peu de raisons nous n'examinerons que le sous-mode apprenante. Les répondantes ont utilisé ce sous-mode le plus souvent parce que c'était le moyen approprié, requis pour le type d'apprentissage qu'elles faisaient. Cette raison constitue 18% des énoncés. La 2e raison la plus fréquente est que "c'était le moyen habituel d'apprendre" (11,5% des énoncés).

En résumé, lorsque les raisons sont associées aux modes, ce sont des caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles qui ont amené les répondantes à choisir le mode quel qu'il soit. Par ailleurs, lorsque les raisons sont associées aux sous-modes, les raisons dominantes sont: le moyen se présentait, était disponible, le moyen était approprié, requis, et, c'était le seul moyen.

CONCLUSION

Cette étude a mis en lumière la prédominance du mode non formel dans les apprentissages d'un groupe de professionnelles interrogées sur leurs activités éducatives au cours d'une année. Elle démontre aussi que les sous-modes apprenante/non formel et apprenante/informel, qui correspondent aux apprentissages autodidactes, ont été choisis le plus souvent, soit pour 52% et 13% des projets.

Des tendances aussi fortes pour l'apprentissage suivant un mode non formel et aussi pour des activités éducatives de type autodidacte ont été relevées par d'autres chercheurs. Ces tendances devraient suggérer des changements de politique chez les Gouvernements, les corporations professionnelles et les employeurs. Ainsi, toute politique ou réglementation devrait éviter d'imposer un seul mode d'apprentissage. Les employeurs devraient davantage chercher à connaître les modes d'apprentissage de leurs employés et développer pour ceux qui favorisent les sous-modes apprenant/non formel ou informel, des services d'aide à l'apprentissage autodidacte. Dans ce contexte les employeurs pourraient capitaliser davantage dans le développement de ressources éducatives qui peuvent être apportées à la maison ou dans un lieu librement choisi par l'employé-apprenant.

L'analyse des modes et sous-modes a aussi mis en lumière que les projets éducatifs réalisés sous le mode formel sont planifiés le plus souvent par le groupe ou son instructeur. Les institutions d'enseignement, et dans ce cas-ci, les institutions universitaires, qui s'adressent à des adultes, devraient s'activer davantage à diversifier les sous-modes d'apprentissage. Des efforts sont faits dans certains milieux mais il reste encore beaucoup à faire.

L'analyse des sous-modes a aussi révélé que les apprentissages structurés par un objet étaient peu fréquents. Ce type d'apprentissage que l'on dit de l'avenir, est-il si peu connu? Est-il boudé? Des contenus qui répondent aux besoins ne sont-ils pas offerts? Nous croyons que les organismes et institutions qui s'orientent vers cette forme d'activités éducatives devraient s'interroger. Peut-être y aurait-il lieu de développer des stratégies particulières pour y intéresser les apprenants.

Enfin, l'analyse des raisons qui avaient amené les répondantes à choisir tel ou tel sous-mode pour apprendre, a révélé que ce sont d'abord et le plus souvent des caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles notamment, que "le moyen était approprié", ou encore qu'il "était disponible", qui les ont amenées à avoir recours à ces modes et sous-modes. Ceci suggère que la pertinence du moyen et de sa disponibilité perçus par l'apprenant, seraient deux déterminants importants dans le choix des modes d'apprentissage.

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TABLEAU 1

Typologie des modes d'éducation selon Coombs et Ahmed et Kleis _et_ _al_.

modes d'éducation	Coombs et Ahmed	Kleis _et_ _al_.
formel	réfère au système d'éducation: l'éducation est institutionalisée, graduée chronologiquement, structurée hiérarchiquement;	réfère aux expériences directes ou médiatisées, choisies de façon délibérée, structurées de façon systématique, et où les composantes humaine et curriculaire sont soumises aux contraintes du système d'éducation;
informel	réfère aux apprentisssages faits au cours des expériences quotidiennes et des interactions avec l'environnement social et économique;	réfère aux expériences quotidiennes consciemment examinées et délibérément enrichies dans un contexte de vie communautaire;
non formel	réfère à toute activité éducative systématique et organisée en dehors du système formel;	réfère à toute activité éducative intentionnelle et systématique, généralement en dehors de l'école traditionnelle où, par certaines mesures, l'atteinte de la mission éducative est maximisée et le maintien des contraintes du système est minimisé;
accidentel ou fortuit		réfère aux expériences quotidiennes dont la visée éducative n'est pas intentionnelle.

TABLEAU 2

La typologie des planificateurs du projet éducatif selon Tough.

Le projet éducatif:

un projet éducatif est constitué d'une série d'épisodes interreliés où la majorité de la motivation de la personne est axée sur l'acquisition de certaines connaissances et habiletés assez clairement définies ou sur l'obtention d'un changement personnel durable. Pour qu'ils soient considérés comme projet éducatif, ces épisodes doivent avoir une durée minimum de 7 heures au cours d'une période de six mois. Enfin, comme il arrive que des gens apprennent des choses pour les oublier presque aussitôt, il y a projet éducatif lorsque la personne a eu l'intention de retenir ce qu'elle a appris durant au moins deux jours (Tough, 1971; 6-15).

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planificateur	définition
l'apprenant lui-même:	c'est l'apprenant qui prend la plupart (+ de 50%) des décisions concernant le quoi et le comment de son projet; il peut demander conseil mais il garde le contrôle sur chacune des étapes qu'il franchit;
un objet:	il s'agit d'une ressource matérielle. Cette ressource contient le plan du projet et dirige les activités de l'apprenant étape après étape; celui-ci n'a à peu près rien à décider. Cet objet peut être un enseignement sur cassette, un enseignement programmé, une série télévisée, etc.;
une autre personne:	il s'agit d'une personne qui est en interaction avec l'apprenant dans une situation de face-à-face, physique, par téléphone ou par courrier. Cette autre personne peut être un professeur, un instructeur, un consultant, etc.;
un groupe:	c'est le groupe, ou son leader, qui assume la planification et la direction du projet éducatif. Ce groupe peut être une classe, un groupe de discussion, ou tout autre regroupement dirigé par un instructeur, un leader.
le planificateur mixte:	il s'agit d'une situation où la responsabilité de planification du projet est attribuée à plus d'un des quatre types de planificateur définis.

(Tough, 1971, 77-80)

TABLEAU 3

Définition des modes d'apprentissage.

1. mode formel	2. mode non formel	3. mode informel
1. l'intention première de l'apprenant est d'apprendre;	1. l'intention première de l'apprenant est d'apprendre;	1. l'intention d'apprendre n'est pas première chez l'apprenant, elle est seconde, et l'apprentissage se systématise au fur et à mesure de l'expérience ou encore
2. l'apprentissage est organisé de façon systématique avant et/ou au cours de l'activité;	2. l'apprentissage est organisé de façon systématique avant et/ou au cours de l'activité;	2. l'intention d'apprendre est première mais l'apprentissage n'est pas suffisamment systématique.
3. l'activité est offerte par une institution dont la fonction première est l'enseignement;	3. aucune reconnaissance n'est assurée par le système d'enseignement.	
4. une reconnaissance - attestation, crédits - est assurée.		

TABLEAU 4

Les modes et sous-modes d'apprentissage.

Modes	Sous-modes
FORMEL	1. structuré par l'apprenant,
	2. structuré par un objet,
	3. structuré par une autre personne,
	4. structuré par un groupe ou son instructeur;
NON FORMEL	5. structuré par une institution, (aucune attestation ou crédit n'est accordé),
	6. structuré par un organisme,
	7. structuré par l'apprenant,
	8. structuré par un objet,
	9. structuré par un groupe ou son instructeur qui n'est pas engagé par une institution ou un organisme,
	10. structuré par une autre personne,
	11. structuré par plus d'un type de planificateur: mixte;
INFORMEL	12. provoqué par l'apprenant,
	13. provoqué par un objet,
	14. provoqué par une autre personne,
	15. provoqué par un groupe,
	16. provoqué par plus d'un type de planificateur: mixte,
	17. provoqué par un organisme.

TABLEAU 5

Les tâches indicatrices de la systématisation de l'apprentissage.

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1. l'identification des connaissances et des habiletés à acquérir (le choix du sujet à étudier);
2. le choix des activités, des méthodes, des ressources ou de l'équipement nécessaire à l'apprentissage;
3. l'établissement d'un échéancier ou l'identification des étapes pour réaliser le projet;
4. l'évaluation périodique du progrès réalisé au niveau des connaissances ou des habiletés, ou des changements désirés;
5. la démarche pour obtenir les ressources ou l'équipement nécessaire (s'il s'agit de l'apprenant lui-même: déplacements, recherche de volumes dans une bibliothèque, commande de livres ou encore arrangements pour rencontrer une personne ressource);
6. la démarche pour trouver du temps pour apprendre soit en réduisant ou en réorganisant le temps alloué au travail, aux activités familiales ou aux loisirs.

Il y a systématisation de l'expérience d'apprentissage lorsque 4 tâches ont été accomplies incluant les 2 premières.

TABLEAU 6

Nombre et pourcentage de projets réalisés
et de personnes qui ont utilisé
les mode formel, non formel et informel.

sous-modes	proj.personnels				proj. profess.				total			
	proj. n N=459	%	pers. n N=40	%	proj. n N=459	%	pers. n N=40	%	proj. n N=459	%	pers. n N=40	%
1. MODE FORMEL												
1. apprenante	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. objet	2	1	2	5	1	0,2	1	3	3	1	2	5
3. autre personne	-	-	-	-	1	0,2	1	3	1	0,2	1	3
4. groupe	7	2	7	18	22	5	12	30	29	6	15	38
Total	9	3	9	23	24	5,4	13	33	33	7	16	40
2. MODE NON FORMEL												
5. institution	6	1	6	15	1	0,2	1	3	7	2	7	18
6. organisme	9	2	8	20	41	9	20	50	50	11	27	68
7. apprenante	146	32	39	98	93	20	36	90	239	52	40	100
8. objet	2	1	2	5	1	0,2	1	3	3	1	2	5
9. groupe	16	4	10	25	16	4	13	33	32	7	18	45
10. autre personne	6	1	6	15	4	1	2	5	10	2	7	18
11. mixte	6	1	4	10	5	1	4	10	11	2	8	20
Total	191	42	39	98	161	35	38	95	352	77	40	100
3. MODE INFORMEL												
12. apprenante	35	8	21	53	24	5	16	40	59	13	28	70
13. objet	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14. autre personne	3	1	2	5	1	0,2	1	3	4	1	3	8
15. groupe	1	0,2	1	3	2	0,4	2	5	3	1	3	8
16. mixte	3	1	2	5	2	0,4	2	5	5	1	4	10
17. organisme	1	0,2	1	3	2	0,4	2	5	3	1	2	5
Total	43	9,4	25	63	31	7	19	47	74	16	32	80

TABLEAU 7

1. Le nombre de modes d'apprentissage par répondante.

modes par répondante	nombre de personnes
1 mode	5
2 modes	11
3 modes	24

2. Le nombre de sous-modes d'apprentissage par répondante.

sous-modes par répondantes	nombre de personnes
1	2
2	3
3	[illegible]
4	11
5	12
6	4
7	2

TABLEAU 8

Les catégories de raisons évoquées pour le choix des modes d'apprentissage.

catégories	définition
1) une influence extérieure:	les raisons font référence à une pression extérieure provenant de personnes (employeurs, institutions d'enseignement) ou autres (fonctions ou tâches, publicité, réputation);
2) les qualités intrinsèques:	les raisons font référence à des qualités perçues comme étant propres au sous-mode;
3) les caractéristiques conjoncturelles ou contextuelles:	les raisons réfèrent à l'une ou l'autre des circonstances qui accompagnent l'événement, ou encore elles réfèrent à des éléments qui constituent une situation donnée d'apprentissage, à l'exception du facteur temps et des ressources;
4) le facteur temps:	les raisons réfèrent au moment, à la durée ou à toute autre condition temporelle;
5) les ressources humaines ou matérielles	les raisons réfèrent à des ressources humaines ou matérielles ou aux deux à la fois;
6) le désir de socialiser:	les raisons réfèrent à un goût d'entrer en contact avec les gens;
7) d'autres raisons:	ce sont les sous-catégories de raisons qui ne peuvent être incluses dans aucune des catégories précédentes.

TABLEAU 9

Les raisons évoquées pour le choix des modes.

catégories de raisons	% des énoncés
1. MODE FORMEL	
une influence extérieure	11,1 %
des qualités intrinsèques	13,3 %
des caractéristiques conjoncturelles	33,3 %
le facteur temps	13,3 %
les ressources humaines/matérielles	6,7 %
le désir de socialiser	6,7 %
autres raisons	15,7 %
16 projets ; 45 énoncés ; 10,4 % des raisons (N = 434)	
2. MODE NON FORMEL	
une influence extérieure	5,5 %
des qualités intrinsèques	11,1 %
des caractéristiques conjoncturelles	49,8 %
le facteur temps	6,8 %
les ressources humaines/matérielles	12,4 %
le désir de socialiser	3,9 %
autres raisons	10,4 %
129 projets ; 307 énoncés ; 70,7 % des raisons (N = 434)	
3. MODE INFORMEL	
une influence extérieure	4,9 %
des qualités intrinsèques	4,9 %
des caractéristiques conjoncturelles	62,2 %
le facteur temps	2,4 %
les ressources humaines/matérielles	8,5 %
le désir de socialiser	6,1 %
autres raisons	10,9 %
39 projets ; 82 énoncés ; 18,9 % des raisons (N = 434)	

TABLEAU 10

Les sous-modes et la catégorie dominante de raisons.

sous-mode	projets N	énoncés N	% énoncés (N = 434)	raisons dominantes catégorie	énoncés %
			1. MODE FORMEL		
apprenante	-	-	-	- - - - -	-
objet	2	7	1,6	qualités intrinsèques	43%
autre pers.	1	4	0,9	caract. conjonct.	75%
groupe	13	34	7,8	caract. conjonct.	29%
			2. MODE NON FORMEL		
institution	6	15	3,5	caract. conjonct.	40%
organisme	25	63	14,5	caract. conjonct.	38%
apprenante	65	158	36,4	caract. conjonct.	53%
objet	2	8	1,8	qualités intrinsèques	63%
groupe	17	34	7,8	caract. conjonct.	56%
autre pers.	8	13	3,0	caract. conjonct.	38%
mixte	8	16	3,7	caract. conjonct.	81%
			3. MODE INFORMEL		
apprenante	28	61	14,1	caract. conjonct.	67 %
objet	-	-	-	- - - -	-
autre pers.	3	3	0,7	caract. conjonct.	66 %
groupe	2	3	0,7	caract. conjonct.	100 %
mixte	4	12	2,8	caract. conjonct.	33 %
organisme	2	3	0,7	influence extérieure	66 %

TOWARDS ALTERNATE MODELS IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION EVALUATION RESEARCH

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Readers are invited to critique this paper,
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Introduction

Pressures have been increasing on providers of Continuing Professional Education (CPE) to give evidence that participation by professionals in CPE activities is an effective means of ensuring professional competence, performance, and client amelioration. Those noting this trend have included Knox (1979a), Houle (1980), Kidd (1981), and Cervero (1982), as well as many observers within specific professions.

Put negatively, CPE providers are being asked "Would it make any difference if CPE did not exist?" At stake is not only the reputation or well-being of providers, professional associations, individual professionals, legislators, and professional's clients, but also millions of dollars in fees (Stern, 1977). Failure to show that educational input through CPE is effective is of great consequence, and constitutes a considerable threat to the established "CPE industry".

The response to this threat has been impressive. Studies of "impact" of CPE have mushroomed. In medicine, Chambers et.al. (1983) report that of a total of 249 studies of impact of CPE written since 1935, 74% have been written since 1972. A cursory examination of journals in CPE in nursing, health care, engineering, social work, and pharmacy indicate similar, but less pronounced, trends. Examples include Klus (1979), Gosnell (1980), Manning (1981), LeCroy (1983), and Bellande (1984).

To date, little consensus has been reached, based on impact studies, about the effectiveness of CPE. One has a choice of faulting the CPE interventions themselves, the method of assessing impact, or both. Whatever the conclusion, those involved in the delivery of CPE are left in the awkward position of not knowing which (if any) CPE activities do, and which do not, have an impact on professional performance, and what the critical differences are (Baskett and Day, 1981).

Some writers urge more and better program development and delivery to overcome the shortcomings (Campbell and Gammache, 1981; W.H.O., 1973) and others fault the thoroughness and rigour of the impact evaluations themselves (Dixon, 1978; Lloyd and Abrahamson, 1979). It is generally assumed that once properly designed studies are carried out, one will be able to determine CPE effectiveness conclusively.

Only recently have doubts been raised about the very model upon which both CPE programming, and impact evaluation rests. Many of those undertaking impact studies have been trained in traditional modes of scientific or program evaluation, which use the experimental model as the base (Cronbach, 1975). This model is basically an "input-output" model, in which it is assumed that all variables, other than the educational intervention, can be controlled and that the resultant change in satisfaction, competence, performance, and/or clients can be attributed to that intervention.

Within the CPE literature, the model has recently been questioned for being too simplistic (Knox, 1979a), or for not recognizing the influence of the context (Gebhardt-Taylor, 1983; Cervero, 1982; Farmer, 1983). Unfortunately, alternate models and perspectives have not been articulated and diffused sufficiently, together with a clear methodology and technology, to be useable by CPE evaluation specialists.

One promising means of gaining new insights into alternate program evaluation approaches is through the growing volume of literature which addresses the issues of professional learning and problem solving from the learner's perspective. This literature is scattered, and only now is becoming more accessible to CPE researchers. The remainder of this paper will be devoted to an examination of this literature as it bears upon the present model of impact assessment, and as it informs alternate perspectives and viewpoints.

Continuing Professional Learning is Learner-Driven, Field-Based

Traditional impact studies have portrayed formal educational interventions as a major, or the major, determinant of change in professional competence, performance or, client change. The professional is cast as a passive recipient of these educational interventions. In contrast, a growing number of studies view the professional learner as a central, active agent who uses his or her environment in a dynamic way in order to cope with real-life, professional problems. In this latter portrayal, education is seen as one of many sources which facilitate professional change.

The move to conceptually place the learner in the driver's seat is no longer new in adult education, yet it represents a considerable paradigmatic shift and should be consciously signaled. Faure (1972) first brought this shift to the attention of education generally, Tough (1971) has provided major impetus in the field of adult education, and Houle (1980) has heralded this shift in CPE. Tough's early evidence that most adult learning occurs outside of formal adult education settings, and is largely self-planned, was found to also apply to such professional fields as teachers (Tough, 1978), engineers (Rymell, 1971; Williams, 1982), physicians (Curry and Putnam, 1981; Geertsma, Parker and Whitbourne, 1982) social workers (Baskett, 1983) and professional men (McCatty, 1975).

These studies have found the locus of learning to be the professional practice, rather than the classroom. For example, Geertsma et.al. (1982) found that not more than 10% of the physician changes they studied involved Continuing Medical Education (CME). Similarly, Curry and Putnam (1981) found that 9% of their study group chose courses as the preferred means for updating knowledge, and 13% for updating skills.

There is also growing suspicion that much of what happens in the field is not related to formal knowledge or skills anyway, yet most CPE programs continue to promote new knowledge or skills. Ashbaugh and McKean (1976) noted that only 6% of physician deficiencies in practice behaviours were the result of insufficient knowledge. Nine years earlier, Miller (1967) was of the opinion that the issue was not lack of knowledge, but lack of use of knowledge which physicians already possessed. In a content-analysis of social work interviews, Carew (1979) found that most of the content could be attributed to "practice wisdom", while only 8% could be deemed formal social work knowledge.

There is a need to pursue these emerging issues in a more systematic fashion, and to compare data across, and between, professions. If, however, future studies confirm what seems to be emerging, that is, that most real-life, professional learning occurs in the field, and most of what occurs in the field is not related to what is taught in CPE anyway, then one must ask whether further impact studies, especially those that assume a central role of CPE, will be particularly fruitful.

Continuing Professional Learning is a Complex Change Process

The conventional impact evaluation model assumes that causal relationships exist between education and professional behaviour. It is contended here, that this leads researchers to seek causality when in many situations, the conditions involved in learning and behaviour change are so complex, that one cannot hope to establish such connections, even if they do exist. It would be far more accurate to assume multiple, and interacting, variables.

The complexity involved in professional learning and change has only recently become the subject of investigation, and what data there is is scattered. One of the underlying reasons has been, as Tough (1982) points out, "People believe that they and others change without much thought, planning, purpose, choice-making, time and effort" (p. 56). Why examine something as simple as change?

Most recent studies have recognized that there are different points at which evaluation can occur, that is, one can evaluate participants' perceptions, change in knowledge, change in ability to perform, or change in client behaviour or well-being. The model remains linear and causal, even though the points of evaluation are seen as being further from the cause (education). Studies which have viewed knowledge, performance or client change from a field perspective have uncovered a far richer, more complex, and interrelated set of dynamic conditions operating in professional learning than previous impact studies would lead us to believe exist.

Learning and change by professionals has been found to involve a sequence of related stages. Geertsma et.al. (1982) suggest that, from a physician's viewpoint, changes centre on a sequence of three core stages: priming, or the feeling of dissatisfaction about some aspects of practice; focusing, where the professional becomes aware of alternative or new practice behaviour; and follow-up, where active pursuit of input occurs. Fuller (1969) identified stages of concern of teachers, during which they were only receptive to learning certain kinds of knowledge and skills. Baskett (1983) found that social workers required four necessary, but insufficient conditions in order to apply knowledge: receptivity to acquire; receptivity to apply; opportunity to acquire; and opportunity to apply.

Professional learning has been found to involve an interdependent and dynamic interaction between sources of knowledge and action. Geertsma et.al. (1982) identified six "agencies informing or advising physicians" (p. 757) -- colleague, journal, conference, CME program, patients, and drug company representative. Baskett (1983) identified six "sources of knowledge" -- peers, supervisors, print, formal education, clients and external professionals, and reports that these six different sources function differently at different stages to inform, confirm, reflect, provide emotional support, or protect the social worker. Geertsma et.al. also report that at different stages these sources work differently, for example, while initial awareness of an alternative professional solution may come from a variety of sources, communications with colleagues and authoritative opinion (in combination) work at the stage of follow-up or action. Zober et.al. (1982) and Baskett (1983) also note that peers play crucial roles in the action stage of professional change.

Peers, rather than CPE, have figured significantly throughout the complex process of learning and acting by professionals in studies by Tough (1982), Farmer (1979), Walker (1979), Geertsma et.al. (1982), Maxwell et.al. (1984) and Sexton-Hesse (1984).

There is some evidence which suggest that uses of sources by professionals varies by profession. For example, Parboosingh et.al. (1984), Curry and Putram (1982), and Geertsma et.al. (1982) show physicians use jounals and other authoritative documents extensively. On the other hand, McCulloch and Brown (1968), Djatiasmoro, Greenwald and Linn (1972), Rosenblatt (1968), and Kirk et.al. (1976) found that social workers do not use journals often to obtain solutions for professional problems, or to update. Parboosingh et.al. found that use of sources of knowledge varies amongst specialists within a single profession.

The nature of the professional problem itself has been shown to have a bearing on how professionals use their agents or sources. In well-defined problems, Farmer (1979) found that print and routines often helped professionals, but in ill-defined professional problems, peers were found to help more often, as did heuristic strategies. Geertsma et.al. (1982) also found association between differential use of sources and complexity.

The complex processes by which professionals move from awareness of a problem to eventual action have not been examined extensively until recently, and lack careful documentation. Often as not, professional learning involves re-evaluation of old information and ideas, creation of new perspectives, and conceptual realignment (Maxwell et.al. (1984). In examining how social workers use knowledge, Baskett (1983) has noted that new descriptors are required to more accurately portray the "realities" of professional learning, because the present language tends to be derived from the older cause-effect model of learning.

The purpose of the preceding discussion was to bring to light a growing body of investigation and insight which suggest that professional learning is so complex, and at this stage, so little understood, that attempts to evaluate impact of learning interventions using conventional approaches may not always be fruitful. The very uniqueness of the professional learning process suggests that group-based educational interventions, which are intended to bring about change, are simply apt to become dissolved in the complexity, making linkages almost impossible to trace.

Internal and External Forces Affecting CPE Impact

Not only is continuing professional learning learner-driven, field-based, complex, unique and individualistic, but powerful individual and environmental forces are at work which mediate the process by which professionals move towards action for client amelioration. While these forces have been noted by many writers, CPE evaluators do not seem, by and large, to take them into consideration in their evaluation designs.

In his conclusions on impact evaluation, Knox (1979b) foretells the inattention these forces have received: ". . . the term 'intervening variables' fails to convey the power of these other influences to confound efforts to attribute benefits to an educational program in a causal way" (p.119). Although many authors have referred to both environmental and psychological forces which interact to determine professional learning outcomes (Zober et.al., 1982 ; Fox, 1983; Steers and Porter, 1974; Knox, 1979c) there appears to have been little systematic documentation of these variables and their relationships, not only within professions fields, but also comparatively between professions.

These variables are often said to mediate the effectiveness of educational outcomes, and the list, when compiled, is quite impressive. To provide the reader with a taste of the extent of these variables or forces, the following lists some of the more common which are cited in the literature. In examining the list, it becomes apparent that despite good educational programming methodology, most CPE programs have very little control over these forces, a point made by several writers including Zober et.al. (1982), Mosel (1957), Fox (1983), and Day and Baskett (1982).

Individual Variables

Life stages -- Knox (1977); Dalton and Thompson (1971); Saxberg (1979)
Merriam (1979)
Learning Style -- Kolb (1976); Davis et.al. (1983); Curry and Purkis (1982)
Career Steps -- Kopelman (1979); Baskett (1983)
Confidence -- Ainley (1979); Maxwell et.al. (1984); Richards and Cohen (1980)
Role -- Baskett (1983)
Power -- Baskett (1983)
Personality types -- Mitroff and Mittroff (1979)
Values -- Baskett (1983); Rapp (1982)
Motivation -- Dubin (1974)
Hostility -- Gebhardt-Taylor (1982)
Previously learned knowledge -- Miller (1967).

External Variables

Nature of task -- Steers and Porter (1974); Baskett (1983)
Climate -- Olmstead (undated)
Time and workload -- Ainley (1979); Knox (1979a); Baskett (1983); Zober (1982)
Timing and propinquity -- Waddell (1978); Baskett (1983)
Degree of isolation -- Coleman et.al. (1959); Curry and Putnam (1981);
Parboosingh et.al. (1984)
Professional belief system -- Rapp (1982), Kouzes and Mico (1979)
Clarity of Problem -- Walker (1979)
Organization and structure -- Baskett (1983)
Year of graduation -- Parboosingh et.al. (1984)
Duration -- Parboosingh et.al. (1984)

In Search of a Better Mousetrap

Green and Lewis (1981) cite failure of theory, program or measurement as reasons for failure in CPE assessment. This paper suggests that a chief reason why impact studies are providing such mixed results is because the theory upon which the design is based is inadequate in accounting for the nature and complexity of professional learning and change.

This leads one to question what alternates exist in the assessment of CPE. In fact, a number of recent studies pursue promising directions. Rather than ask, as many impact studies have, "What is the impact of CPE?", more recent investigators, such as Sexton-Hesse (1984), Walker (1979) and Farmer ()1979) seem to be asking the question, "What do we understand about professional learning and change?", and a subsidiary question, but of major interest to most of these writers, "What do our findings tell us about how we can more effectively facilitate professional learning, performance, and client change. In a sense, these studies have moved from the more summative to the more formative questions.

Many authors have struggled to pull themselves away from the first question, although not with complete success in this writer's view.
Cervero (1984) has suggested, for example, that "The research question ...would be 'Under what conditions and for which types of individuals are which characteristics of continuing education most likely to improve the professionals' performance?" Such a research question retains the bias that one can still sort out characteristics or variables of education which bring about change. The question represents a more finely tuned version of the input-output model, but suggests one must only more clearly identify the intervening variables. Similarly, Fox (1983) has suggested that discrepancy analysis is a means of contending with the fact that most health problems are not influenced by CME. Unfortunately, in this writer's view, he proposes that to cope with this dilemma we focus on the modest but significant part CME can play in influencing health care. What is not dealt with here is the very good possibility that CME cannot stand alone, but must be integrated with the total learning and development of the professional. Efforts to isolate how CME alone influences change ignores the absolute complexity and interdependence of the parts of professional learning.

Growing recognition has been given in recent studies to the concepts of adoption of innovations and knowledge diffusion. This rediscovery of knowledge dissemination and utilization has led to increased willingness to view professional learning as change, and a process, rather than as an event. (Maxwell et. al. 1984; Geertsma et.al. 1982.) While such a move is promising, Havelock, (1973) has shown that much of the literature on knowledge dissemination and utilization carries with it a concept of a passive recipient to whom new knowledge is diffused, or who, through various manipulations of significant others, eventually adopt an innovation. It is this notion of causality and linearity which is being brought to question by recent CPE research.

In order to accommodate this growing recognition of multiple factors and relationships and the limitations of the more traditional research model some more recent studies (Maxwell et.al. 1984; Gebhardt-Taylor, 1982) have attempted to understand interactions amongst variables as well as unaccounted forces and dynamics by the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. This has permitted a greater degree of triangulation (Denzin, 1970), as well as increased capability to seek conditions or factors which would go undetected using only one approach.

One can extract from the preceding discussion and evidence a number of principles which future evaluation studies of CPE might embrace, and which might further the efforts of investigators to more adequately inform those attempting to facilitate professional effectiveness. Future research and evaluative methods should seek to be:

1. Holistic: Future studies must be able to encompass not only hypothesised variables, but be sensitive to all unknown dimensions in professional learning, including forces internal and external to professionals.
2. Multi-directional: Future evaluation efforts should recognize that interaction amongst variables occurs, and that these are mutually interacting as opposed to unidirectional.
3. Sensitive to the complexity of change: Evaluative efforts must be able to recognize that under less complex conditions (drug changes, for example) casual relations between education and change probably exist, and that certain kinds of evaluation, such as the experimental model are appropriate. However, under complex conditions, both new models, and new methodologies are required to more accurately approximate the field realities.
4. Relevant to Professional Practice: Studies which only answer whether or not statistically significant relationships are found between limited variables is insufficient for practicing CP educators and professionals. An understanding of how changes

might be brought about is required.

5. Dynamic: Whatever evaluative methods and designs are utilized, they must be able to be flexible enough to cope with the real give and take of the field, rather than assume permanence of context, conditions, variables or relationships.

6. Recognize the Centrality of the Professional: Rather than conceive of the professional as being at the receiving end of educational interventions, a revised evaluative model would portray the professional at the vortex of change, although in dynamic interaction internally and with the environment. It will conceptually return the professional to the driver's seat where he or she has always been.

Many programming models are being developed which take into consideration the newly-understood realities of the field. Bashook et. al.(198) are experimenting with "Medical Care Evaluation committees", Curry (1983) reports growing use of practice audits, Zober (1982) suggests "action-oriented" training, Brown and Fleischer (1971) the "Bi-cycle Concept", and Manning et. al., (1980) "Office-Based" CPE. Innovative programmers are outpacing innovative evaluative methods. It's time to catch up.

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